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S. B. Bapat

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The Good Administrator

[These extracts from a talk delivered on the 14th August, 1955, under "Sardar Vallabhbhai Patel Lectures" series, by SHRI C. RAJA-GOPALACHARI, former Governor-General of India, are reproduced by the courtesy of All India Radio.—Ed.]

IF anyone investigated into what most people in India desire as regards government—whether they want democracy, or whether they want a federal or a unitary government, or whether they want the American type of democracy or the British and so on—I guess we shall see that the people want honest, efficient, prompt, just and sympathetic officers; and they do not mind the form of government.

The people expect a rise in the general standard of comfort, and this, too, not for one class at the expense of another but among all classes generally, urban as well as rural. Apart from technical advances leading to increased average national income which will go towards bringing about a rise in the general standard of living, the importance of an efficient administrative organisation is very great. No people can be happy with an inefficient government or with a government that is not firm and impartial. The psychology of the caste nexus and of class differences is strong in India. All the greater is the need for firm and impartial officials, and the common people know this.

For any administration to be good and efficient as a whole, we want the right type of men. *The quality of the men placed in position is more important than the laying down of rules and methods of operation.* The caste consciousness is a hard reality. It unites and divides in a very real manner today whatever be our goal. And today is most important in matters of administration. Short-sighted favouritism and concessions to produce contentment among classes and

castes will be very short-lived and deteriorate into a constant pandering to intrigues and factions if we do not look to the real efficiency of the administration.

For the administration to be efficient we require the right sort of men to be in positions of power and responsibility. Whatever may be believed or said in the passion or thoughtlessness of the hour that often passes for democratic thought, these men must come from our organised higher educational institutions. Splendid exceptions, meteorlike, sometimes appear. Leaders and organisers with Herculean strength come up now and then without any or with but little academic education. But these are exceptions. The general rule is that the men we require for running the administration must come from our higher educational institutions. They cannot be got at elsewhere. The type of equipment and mental make-up that we require for good administrators must therefore be kept in mind in the organisation of higher education, for these cannot be obtained for them elsewhere or later after recruitment.

What are the requirements we should demand in a good administrator? Character is a fundamental requirement. And a fundamental requirement is a most important thing. We cannot let fundamentals take care of themselves.

But though character is a basic requirement, it should be remembered that it is not the decisive factor that makes a person specially fit for administrative tasks. *A very good man may not be at all fit to be entrusted with administrative responsibility in the civil business of the State, even as it is obviously the case in the conduct of a military operation.* It would be easy but perhaps dangerous to give examples of known men who have failed though they are persons of undoubted good character.

After this has been said and admitted, we are apt to think that sound technical equipment is the decisive factor in each department of public service. But it is not so. The special equipment required for various jobs is no doubt indispensable. *But experts cannot govern nor can they be safely allowed to govern, though they may wish and, if permitted, be able to dominate.* In administrative key positions, the special technical equipment that comes into play in those departments is strangely enough by no means the essential requirement.

To give only one example, the man responsible for the fine and rapid development of the electricity system of Madras State was not an electrician, and an electrical engineer could not have done it.

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What is essential at the top is the capacity to judge upon relevant advice and to decide promptly and rightly in executive matters. Judicial offices are not the only places where the capacity to judge is essential. To decide in matters executive, quickly and correctly, is a gift of the gods. And this is it that makes a good administrator. In small as well as great affairs he proves to be a good administrator who has this talent for right judgment and quick decision. It may be that early training can develop this quality. But I am inclined to think that it is a congenital quality and all that we can do is to seek it out where it exists and make use of it.

Those who are in the employ of the Government in our capacities in the branch concerned and the people who are affected by the course of administration must know and feel that in matters of policy as well as in daily administration, they can get clear and binding decisions without delay or procrastination and that there will be no 'messing about', no modifications and counter-orders recalling and revising and modifying decisions once taken.

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Speedy decision does not mean hasty decision without due consultation or discussion. The administrator should have the capacity to obtain the best out of his expert advisers; and quickly to understand what they say. He should have the opinions and experiences of all concerned before coming to his own decision. But when after full discussion a decision is taken, every one should thereafter feel that there will be no vacillation. *Those whose function is to carry out the decision should be sure that they will be supported through every difficulty or unpleasantness and will not be let down at the first hurdle under pressure from some powerful quarter. For successful and good administration in any department in a democratic set-up, this is most important.* It explains the success of most great administrators as well as the failure of others.

Decisions should be speedy. They should certainly wait for full discussion but not for cosmic rays accidentally

and mysteriously to improve our mental apparatus. That is to say, a thing should not be put off for the reason that one is not able to make up one's mind about it.

Often in the affairs of the world wherein generally so many complicated factors are in operation, one particular decision is not the only right decision. But any firm decision is better than indecision. It should be remembered that the decision itself very often affects and alters the environment and psychology of the people concerned. Numerous are the causes, the combined effect of which produces a result. One of them is certainly what follows in the minds of people from the fact of a firm decision. What theoretically may be an imperfect decision becomes the right decision with the help of the environmental and psychological modifications that a firm decision brings about.

The proper moment is most important. The good administrator should not only decide quickly but should have the sagacity to know when to do a particular thing. The quality that enables one to see this is based on the ability to grasp a variety of complicated features and to be able to evaluate them to know what features count and which do not. Often this explains why some succeed and some fail in spite of seeming unlikelihood.

Sagacity and imagination are terms that describe the talents required for judging aright. I have said that this quality is probably inborn and cannot be imparted. But experience does nourish and enlarge native talent. There are some people who though themselves not able to judge matters have the capacity to choose men possessing that ability and those qualities. Although one may not oneself possess imagination or sagacity in all matters, he must have the capacity to appreciate such qualities where they exist in order to be a good administrator in a key position. He should not be one who is jealous of it in others and prefers flatterers and yes-men.

The good administrator who has the capacity to make decisions without procrastination will command the loyalty of his staff if he also infuses the confidence that he will stand by and support them, however unpleasant or difficult the execution may be. He should mix with his staff freely and infuse in them the confidence that he is a firm and fair adjudicator on

issues that come up. He should be even-tempered. *Bad temper is not a substitute for firmness. It does not pay. It leads to being surrounded by worthless people who can stand bad temper.* The better men drop off from one who exhibits ill temper or threatens every moment to do so without adequate reason. And the going away of the better men leads to a double loss. You lose good men and you get flatterers and worthless men. The capacity to size men up quickly and know what sort they are is very important. The administrator should have this special talent or he should entrust that particular job to some one else and accept his judgments without question.

When a decision is reached and it has to be executed, the administrator should bring into being a sense of social purpose among his staff of all ranks. Whatever major decision is reached, and whenever a particular piece of work has to be executed, he should see to it that his men see what it is for and realise that it is a good and laudable purpose. They should be made to feel that it would be a service to society to bring it about. There is an oft-repeated story that brings this out. I shall give it in an adapted form giving it a local and contemporary colour. Someone saw stone-cutters at work in Guindy Raj Bhavan at Madras and he asked one of them, "What are you doing?" He replied, "I am cutting stone, do you not see?" "What are you doing?", he asked a second man. His reply was, "Sir, I am a poor man earning my living." To the same question, a third man answered, "Sir, I am chiselling a Buddha image." A fourth man replied, "Sir, we are building the Gandhi Mandapam to serve as a holy centre for prayer." It is this last man's feeling that must be infused among all those who have to carry out anything decided upon.

A hundred years ago, officials in Britain were incompetent, ignorant and frequently corrupt. Today they are efficient, well informed and of high integrity. I have taken this from a British Council publication. In our country too we can hope for an ideal set of officials, provided democratic politics and communal politics allow and do not block progress and impartiality. The authority of Parliament or the State Legislature must be and is supreme, but *it would be frustrating the aim of democracy to let the influence of political or social groups functioning in the legislature or outside to affect recruitment or promotion in the services.*

In emancipated India it was the hope that *politicians who were born in revolution and civil disobedience should soon learn to become administrators*. But this process has been slow. Instead, at the other end, administrators are perhaps tending to become politicians which is bad.

What I have said applies not only to ministers and administrators in government, but to administrators in all big non-official organisations, be it of industry or distribution or transport or other services. The days of big business may be thought to be over, on account of the Congress resolution as to the pattern of society that Congress wants to build up. But in reality it is not the case. Big organisations are still wanted and will continue. Human nature has a mysterious quality in it. Self-interest and profits attract. But man is led by a master within, who is all powerful and cares not for calculations. Big men will continue doing big things because they cannot help it. Good administration is a common problem for private enterprise as well as for the Welfare State.

To the fundamental requirement of character I made a brief reference, but did not dwell upon it because it must be presumed. It is true as I said that it alone is by no means enough. But without it, let it be remembered, nothing else will avail. It is like daylight which we are apt to forget on account of its very importance. *Character is as important for administrators at every level, from the Chief Secretary down to the last grade servant, as sunlight is to every form of life.*



“The object of administrative study is to rescue executive methods from the confusion and costliness of empirical experiment and set them upon foundations laid deep in stable principle”.

—WOODROW WILSON
(in ‘The Study of Public Administration’)

Meeting Future Personnel Needs

Paul H. Appleby

SECOND in importance only to a general orientation to administrative improvement, I would point to the putting into effect of a definite plan for providing for the very substantial increase in number of able civil servants that will be required by the Government of India and all of the States ten and fifteen years hence.

India is going to succeed. Success will involve more activity by Government, activity in greater dimensions, and activity in which complexity will be compounded. The personnel needed to carry these increased burdens cannot be produced ready-made by universities or schools of public administration. No matter how much preparatory and professional training may be improved, in the final analysis the needed personnel must be developed in actual administration incident to the conduct of administration.

An excellent example of the way in which planning may meet the kind of need I have in mind was given me by one of the most important men in the Government of India. He recalled how, during the war, it was well-known that a great deal of money would be made which would greatly increase revenue potentials. It was also known that competent tax collectors could be developed only in the course of about five years. Yet preoccupation with immediate necessities prevented the making of necessary recruitments and as a result the Government lost for ever crores of rupees that should have been collected. In a much more complicated way, the forward needs now are similarly clear. Preoccupation with day-to-day business should not in this case prevent the necessary stitches-in-time.

Consideration of the matter may be approached from four different directions : in terms of technical personnel; in terms of general administrators; in terms of recruitment; and in terms of personnel development.

Technical Personnel

There is need for a systematic survey of forward needs in various technical fields. In some fields—medicine,

agricultural technology, extension, and engineering are probable examples—enough may be known now to warrant extensive enlargement of academic programmes at various levels of advancement which will include technical high schools, nurses' training in hospitals, etc. But probably in these fields, and certainly in others, there is need for more precise data on future needs. I should think that it would be wise for the next decade to confine expansion of college and university facilities and enrolment as closely as possible to those fields in which it has been ascertained that personnel supplies are and will be inadequate.

It should be recognized that standards of technical competence established in Western societies may be for some time to come inapplicable and inappropriate here except for top groups in the various fields. Dealing with the masses may be more effective as well as easier to provide for if it is recognized that the degree of expertise required by government personnel must have a relationship to the present condition of the citizens with whom work will be done and to the dimensions of need.

It will also be desirable, somewhat at the time of recruitment and greatly in governing in-service assignment and development, to differentiate between technicians specializing in sub-fields of specialization and technicians dealing more generally with technical functions. Some effort should be made to recruit a small percentage of technically-trained persons in the various fields who already show a capacity for general virtuosity. Certainly in the first eight or ten years following their recruitment there should be a considerable effort to select out for special attention those individuals who demonstrate breadth of interest, flexibility, and general good judgment; such persons are the ones best fitted to move upward in hierarchies of organizations carrying on functions of heavy technical content. For the purpose of such identifications, persons whose experience and competence are of a definitely general quality should have a highly influential voice.

General Administrators

As the increase in technical character of governmental activities develops, the need for generalist personnel who can sensibly relate different aspects of matters will increase both in importance and in numbers at a geometric ratio. The great

virtue of generalist competence found in the old I.C.S., in the new I.A.S., and in the British "administrative class" needs to be made stronger and deeper in years ahead. If enough attention is given to developing relative generalists out of technical personnel, the need will become more manageable. Other efforts should include increased recruitment of persons in the I.A.S. formula, increased development of Class II personnel, increased recruitment of persons especially trained in public administration, in economics, social psychology and sociology in association with training in public administration, and great attention to improving direction and management of personnel in terms maximizing their capacity for promotion, along with encouragement of part-time academic work, administrative short-courses and the like. These things will be recited and briefly expanded in the section on "personnel development".

Recruitment

Implicit in what already has been said is the general point that there should be more recruitment, both at the Centre and in the States, than now is being made, built in terms of these forward needs. A minimum programme would call for the Centre alone to add no fewer than 300 of the most promising persons available just as soon as possible, and to follow this up with further additions. It should be recognized that the right kind and amount of in-service development will fully compensate for what might otherwise be regarded as marginal inadequacy. Emphasis should also be given to the fact that a good many persons not now being brought into the public service can be induced to come in with more imaginative and aggressive recruitment efforts. There should be relaxations in respect of entering-age requirements, and in particular there should be a systematic effort to recruit at about the age range of from 28-32, when persons will have had some worldly experience and will have reached an age where demonstration of ability is more convincing and relevant than it usually is at the age of college graduation. Some recruitment should be encouraged at still higher ages. Temporary employment should also be given to academicians who will thus be prepared in their teaching to give instruction in a way more useful than heretofore to students looking forward to government careers.

Personnel Development

One of the most difficult, extensive and important aspects of the whole matter under discussion is in the field of maximizing the growing-power of persons after they are recruited. India already has a highly laudable experience in this matter in the case of the I.C.S. and I.A.S. But the applications of the learning of that experience to the personnel generally will not be simple or easy. In other governments—and I am thinking now chiefly of the Government of the United States—extensive and numerous experiments in in-service training went on for two decades before the results began to be significant in large dimensions. Here I list some of the means that appear hopeful and important : Emphasizing the responsibility of all supervisors, executives and administrators for giving leadership and instruction which will speed up and maximize learning of employees. Special efforts should be begun which hereafter will apply in particular to all recruits; they should be given systematic orientations which will enable them to understand the relationship of their assignments to the large and significant programmes of government and to their particular organizations. They should be instructed not merely in rules of business but in the reasons for the rules. They should be given responsibility, encouraged to exercise discretion and thus enabled to learn how to avoid mistakes in exercising judgment. At each stage they should be given enough responsibility to tax their capacities without seriously over-taxing them. Persons demonstrating alertness, flexibility, quick perception and superior judgment should be given diversified experience, for this is what enlarges perspective and thus equips with judgment. A certain rather large percentage of persons should be encouraged to find fulfilment by specializing in certain activities, just as others should be encouraged to diversify—the latter constituting the smaller number. Employees should be encouraged to take single academic courses which will add to their competence in particular jobs and lines of career. There should be short-courses that are especially developed for people with certain common needs. There should be in-service seminars in which efforts are made to advance learning and understanding relevant to job success. Promotions should be considered more in terms of individual readiness for more responsibility, and less in terms of fixed time-spans. It should be particularly remembered that persons who are to rise high will need to rise

rapidly. Technicians should be encouraged to learn more about the functions thought of as in the field of general administration, and generalists should be encouraged to read and study broadly in technical fields; this need is rooted in the fact that the two kinds of persons inevitably will be involved with each other and need to understand generally the fields of the others. Especially promising persons and key figures among the more mature should be given opportunities to go abroad to study and observe practices there; again, this widening of perspective will provide the elements of superior judgment.

It may be useful to list some of the terms in which improved understanding is important but which do not coincide with academic disciplines or with governmental functional specializations. The ways of *organizations, organizational structure, decision-making, judgment and wisdom*—all these are key terms that are highly relevant to improvement in public administration. Characteristics of public administration peculiar to democracy, and administration especially oriented to a Welfare State are also highly important terms of orientation.

“A true leader aims so to organize and develop his particular effort that when he withdraws, those who have been associated with him in it will have acquired a sense of responsibility that will carry the effort along with approximately the same effectiveness without him. This is of course an ideal which is seldom realized in practice, and it should be recognized that no one has ever succeeded in organizing any piece of work so that it operates itself. On the other hand it is useful to (have) this as an objective.....”

—G. L. WARREN
(in ‘Social Planning and Social Leadership’)

The International Civil Servant

S. Lall

THE growth and development of an International Civil Service during the last four decades constitutes a landmark in the administration of international affairs. The International Civil Service has not come to be established in the same way as the national civil services of most countries nor has it the same background of long and rich experience. It came into importance only after the first world war when the League of Nations was set up. During the second world war it was faced with a serious crisis threatening its very existence. The termination of hostilities saw the establishment of the United Nations and many new specialised agencies. These international organisations set about their tasks with a firm determination to achieve substantial results in a short time. In spite of the inevitable difficulties in recruitment, the size of the international staff was considerably enlarged during the first three years. But as the programmes of the international organisations developed, the enthusiasm of the member states, which were called upon to bear the cost, began to decline. This led to a demand for economy and for retrenchment. The emphasis shifted to greater personnel efficiency. For the International Civil Service a period of reckoning followed, the strain of which has been greatly accentuated by the mounting international tension.

The International Civil Service in its broader context covers the personnel both of the United Nations and its Specialised Agencies. But as the terms and conditions of service and recruitment practices are not identical in each case, the scope of this article is confined to the role of the International Civil Servant in the United Nations.

II

The International Civil Service occupies the same central position in international administration as the national civil service does in a federal government. There are, however, some important differentiating features. *First of all*, the International Civil Service is not vested with any governmental

authority normally exercised by a national civil service. *Secondly*, recruitment to the International Civil Service is not made as much on the basis of merit as in most of the national civil services in advanced countries. This is partly due to the necessity of regional representation, which is a legitimate consideration recognised by the constitution of the United Nations, but also results from the pressure of exaggerated national claims. *Thirdly*, though International Civil Servants enjoy a higher status and their scales of pay and allowances and pensions are generally more favourable than national civil services, they do not have the same security of tenure. *Lastly*, the International Civil Servant has to work in an international setting where the interplay of political influences is much more marked. All these differences are reflected, in turn, in the nature of the duties which the International Civil Servant is called upon to perform, the qualities required for their successful performance and in the overall personnel policy and practice.

The duties of the U.N. personnel are more varied and the range of subjects dealt with much wider and more highly specialised than is the case with most national services. The main function of the U.N. Secretariat is servicing the General Assembly, the Security Council, the Economic and Social Council and the Trusteeship Council. The International Civil Servant has to prepare basic memoranda for the meetings of these organs as well as the summary or verbatim records of their proceedings. The number of political, social and economic problems, which come up for discussion is increasing and so is their scope. Each has to be carefully examined and studied. Sometimes staff members are detailed on field visits and surveys. At times they may even be called upon to report on the actual facts of an occurrence, though so highly delicate a function is more often entrusted to special investigation than to the permanent officials of the Secretariat.

Then there is a considerable volume of work connected with arrangements for meetings and conferences. Speeches made in the United Nations in any of the five official languages, viz., English, Spanish, French, Russian and Chinese, have to be interpreted simultaneously or translated immediately into the other four languages. The fact that the staff members and delegates come from different countries with different cultural and social backgrounds, necessitates

the holding of frequent social gatherings to promote a sense of international fellow-feeling.

The International Civil Servant is expected to perform his duties with "the highest standards of efficiency, competence and integrity". Every permanent officer of the professional category is screened by a Review Board every five years in regard to his suitability to continue to hold his post. This Board carefully scrutinises his confidential records, checks whether the statements about his work made therein are based on facts or not, and even interviews him if found necessary. Standards of performance have generally been laid down for secretarial and clerical posts. It would, however, be dangerous to assess the efficiency of the International Civil Servant by the standards applied to national civil servants as the nature of work and its setting differ materially.

The International Civil Servant does not play that significant role in the formulation and execution of policies which his counterpart does in national administrations. Substantive questions of policy are decided by the General Assembly, the Security Council, the Economic and Social Council and the Trusteeship Council; the work of the U.N. personnel is mainly confined to providing necessary secretarial and technical assistance to these bodies. The personnel, however, is in a position to contribute indirectly to the framing of policies through presentation of facts, expression of views, and the drafting of resolutions. Here, the international character of their duties calls for objectivity and demonstrable impartiality. In the field of policy execution, the International Civil Servant is primarily concerned with the communication of the decisions taken by the United Nations to appropriate national governments. He may, as already stated, even carry out some field studies, or surveys authorised by any of the U.N. organs. On the whole, both the power and responsibility of the International Civil Servants are much less than those of the national civil servant, but he is subject to greater criticism and for that reason has to exercise greater caution and discretion.

III

The International Civil Servant has to conduct himself in such a way as not to create even a suspicion of impartiality or unreliability. The U.N. Staff Regulations provide that

his responsibilities are "not national but exclusively international" and that "he shall neither seek nor accept instructions from any government or from any other authority external to the Organisation". While he is not expected to give up his national sentiments or political convictions, he cannot engage in any activity which is incompatible with the proper discharge of his duties in the United Nations. The International Civil Servant has, accordingly, to harmonise and balance a multitude of conflicting interests and views with such nicety as not to offend any of the member states, each of which is highly sensitive to anything written, said or implied affecting its own position or prestige.

The International Civil Service is to be recruited on "as wide a geographical basis as possible". While the selection of the international staff should be made "on a competitive basis", the consideration relating to regional representation in actual practice implies that the staff drawn from any country has to depend upon the goodwill of its government both for initial recruitment and continuance in employment. If a staff member feels that he is being unjustly treated, he naturally seeks the protection of his country's delegation. There is also an unfortunate tendency on the part of national governments to distrust its nationals in the U.N. Secretariat who do not strictly adhere to the current political faith of the country. The distrust of an International Civil Servant at times arises from the views expressed by him in the course of the conscientious discharge of his official duties. For instance, an officer advocating that technical assistance should be channelled through the United Nations was openly discredited in his country for presenting a point of view which was contrary to its policy.

This tendency is not confined to any particular nation or bloc. It came prominently to notice during the loyalty check of some American staff members, who were suspected by the Government of being or having been members of the Communist Party. The U.S. Government objected to their continuance in the U.N. Secretariat because they had refused to disclose the nature and the extent of their present or past Communist connections. The argument was that Communism having been declared as subversive by the Government of the United States, any American suspected of Communism could not be trusted to act fairly where the interests of his country were involved. Although not a

single concrete charge could be brought against a staff member, his continued employment in the U.N. was challenged with such force as to place the Secretary-General in a most unenviable position. The 'loyalty check' introduced a new principle and a new procedure for dealing with an International Civil Servant. He could be judged not on the basis of concrete facts but on doubts and suspicions without even a full and clear statement of the reasons. This has had a serious effect on the morale of the U.N. personnel.

In some Latin American countries, revolutions are of frequent occurrence. Governments change almost overnight from left to right and *vice versa*. A staff member sponsored or supported by his previous Government is liable to be declared, so to speak, *persona non grata* and, therefore, not worthy of retention in the International Civil Service.

At times distrust is expressed of the motives and even the *bona fides* of individual staff members. In the Department of Trusteeship and Information from Non-Self-Governing Territories, the staff has to be particularly careful that no statement or action is likely to cause annoyance or irritation to the administering power or the people of the territories.

The present regional composition of the U.N. Staff whereby some regions are heavily represented while other important regions are inadequately represented or not represented at all makes it particularly vulnerable to the political climate of distrust. It has given rise either to suspicions of partiality and discrimination on the part of those in authority, or to the feeling that, even in matters of pure administration, political rather than administrative considerations influence the decisions. If the present defective regional composition is to be remedied—and it is generally accepted that it should be—it is all the more important that recruitment generally and from the unrepresented or inadequately represented regions should be strictly on the basis of merit and free from political influences.

It is most important that a system of recruitment calculated to create greater confidence should be evolved. The application of the well-recognised techniques of examination, interview and testing may present difficulties, but with suitable modifications and adjustments they could be given a trial. Wherever possible, the co-operation of Public Service Commissions should be enlisted in the selection of candidates.

The relatively less secure tenure of the International Civil Servant as compared to that of national civil servants also affects the former's work attitude. At present, the Secretary-General may terminate the appointment of a permanent staff member "if, in his opinion, such action would be in the interest of the United Nations". Appeal to the Administrative Tribunal against such termination of the service can only be made through the joint appeals body but the decision of the Tribunal is not binding on the Secretary-General who may, instead, award compensation as provided for in the U.N. Staff Regulations. A national civil servant stands on firmer ground. His services cannot generally be terminated without giving him an opportunity to defend himself against the charges levelled. Accordingly, the International Civil Servant has to be much more cautious and restrained in the expression of what he conscientiously feels about any official matter or any proposed course of action.

IV

The past five years have been a period of trial for the International Civil Service. There is nothing in this experience that should make one feel pessimistic in regard to its future. The U.N. Staff have, on the whole, risen above the difficulties and embarrassments with which they were confronted. They have also shown that even in the atmosphere of distrust they can be relied upon. Many instances can be cited in support of this, but only two typical cases need be given. The interpretation of important political speeches in Russian is entrusted to an American with the fullest approval of the Soviet delegation. In the Department of Trusteeship and Information from Non-Self-Governing Territories, the careful and objective study of the problems of these territories by U.N. Staff, who are nationals of the colonial powers, has received unstinted praise from delegations inexorably opposed to colonialism.

The recent history of the International Civil Service provides a lesson applicable to every civil service. When trouble threatens, nothing is more important than a genuine interest in the job and the capacity to do it well. When this interest is absent or is killed, nothing is of avail.

Public Administration and Scientific Management

Lyndall Urwick

HITHERTO in seeking to apply modern concepts of management, or to give them their proper title "Scientific Management", Governments have generally employed their own staff. Thus, in Great Britain, the Treasury Organization and Methods Division is a part of the Civil Service. It is staffed by individuals who are either specially recruited or drawn from various groups within the Service, but who, whatever their origin, are either already permanent members of the Service, or hoping to become so.

From the stand-point of the Civil Servant, this system has its advantages. Those at the head of a great service can feel that the application of these modern methods to their existing practice will not be unduly hurried. Whatever reorganization may be suggested, it will, ultimately, be under the control of the service. Those responsible will be unlikely to do anything too drastic or too unorthodox. If they attempt to do so, those in charge of the service will be able to restrain them. Any element of undue originality in their suggestions will carry a proportionate diminution of their prospects of advancement in the Service. In any event, they will be unlikely to challenge firmly rooted traditions, or to suggest practices which are repugnant to the customs and attitudes which the service has established by long evolution.

On the other hand, Scientific Management does involve, as its founder Fredrick Winslow Taylor insisted, a "Mental Revolution", and "Mental Revolutions" are not detonated by the cautious observance of existing customs and traditions. It seems probable that, if Organization and Methods work is arranged in the way described, Governments will be slow in gaining the advantages to be secured by a vigorous application of modern methods of management. While up to a certain level it will be possible for Organization and Methods Divisions to introduce better organization, modern office machinery, improvements in forms and procedures and,

generally, to tidy up details, it is improbable that they will possess the weight and influence to persuade large departments to undertake major changes, or to straighten out the tangles which so often occur in inter-departmental relationships. Such changes demand understanding and support from the senior officials in the departments concerned. Such officials are usually very busy men with many quasi-political preoccupations; they are necessarily concerned with what interests their Minister. Usually they have neither the time nor the inclination for close examination of new ideas and new methods of thinking applicable to the executive work of their departments, let alone for the close study necessary to understand an entirely new approach to such work. But unless they can find time to learn to understand the principles of Scientific Management, they will not possess the insight to judge the proposals of experts. There are always more people prepared to oppose new ideas than to accept them readily.

An alternative formula of some interest has been tried in the U.S.A. and is believed to have been successful. A small and high-powered Committee of business men was appointed by the Secretary of Defence to inquire into the organization of Defence requirements procurement, *i.e.*, the ordering or buying of defence material. This small Committee realized that it was not equipped and its members had not the time to undertake the work of investigation into the existing organization. It accordingly appointed a well-known Firm of Management Consultants to do this inquiry for it and to submit recommendations. This Firm were, of course, men of the highest reputation accustomed to advising the largest business Corporations in the U.S.A. on questions of organization. They approached their task in the strictest professional spirit.

Similarly, many of the enquiries preceding the report of the President's Committee on Administrative Management, appointed by F.D. Roosevelt in 1937, were organized on this basis. The difficulty in other countries is that professional Management Consulting Firms of sufficient standing and experience are not readily available, or, if they are, senior members of the Civil Service are not prepared to recognize that they possess the skill and knowledge to be of help.

Nevertheless, *unless investigations into the formal organization of agencies under Government control are conducted*

with complete detachment from the interests and prejudices of the existing Civil Service structure, they are likely to lack both the scientific insight and the drive necessary to secure changes as fast as they should occur.

The machinery of Government in many countries is not keeping pace with modern technology. Within a short half-century, improved communications have made the world infinitely smaller. Nations live much closer to each other and consequently have many more opportunities of misunderstanding each other. The development of power-driven machinery and of the factory system have made both their internal social organization and their international economic relations much more complex. Yet they are, in the majority of cases, attempting to deal with these infinitely more intricate problems of government through the constitutional and executive organization of the last century. In many instances both politicians and officials are grossly overworked with the result that they can attend properly to only a small fraction of their greatly increased burden of duties.

A possible alternative to using outside firms of consultants is that Governments should recruit their own corps of specialists in Scientific Management, but should render them completely independent of normal Civil Service Establishments. Thus it would be possible to build up such a service as part of the Prime Minister's personal staff. It would, however, be necessary in such circumstances : (i) to create three or four posts at the top of such a department at least equivalent to those of a Secretary; otherwise, the new service would not attract sufficiently good men; (ii) to ensure that the terms and conditions of entry into the service were equivalent to those offered to an Under-Secretary. It would be necessary to recruit men of considerable ability who had already considerable experience of Scientific Management; (iii) to transfer a proportion of such staff to Civil Service posts, or to give them an opportunity of obtaining outside positions in business after some five to ten years' service. In all private Management Consultant undertakings such transfers of staff are both usual and necessary in order to keep the staff original-minded and to avoid the work taking on any aspect of routine.

But perhaps the greatest danger is that such an official management consultancy service would imagine that its duty

would involve being critical of departments or service it might investigate. To be critical in this way, as all private Management Consultants know, is to render those who publish their criticisms incapable of doing effective reorganization work in the departments of other units they have criticised. The installation of Scientific Management in any organization is essentially a matter of constructive and persuasive leadership, *not* of authoritarianism or witch-hunting. It is even possible that Parliament might wish to use such a new instrument in the wrong way, and, by employing it as a whip or a good rather than as a stimulant, render it incapable of doing its proper work in the only way in which it can be done.

Whatever solution is adopted, it is essential for the countries which are embarking on programmes of economic development that they should make a greater use of the ideas of Scientific Management in their machinery of Government, particularly perhaps where they have transferred a considerable segment of their economic life to public control. There may be ways of doing this other than those examined in this short article, but the vital point is that it should be done and done quickly.



“Proponents of a special administrative class sometimes contend that scientific and technical men lack administrative ability..... Ability to cite some cases in which scientific and technical men lack administrative ability does not prove that all scientific and technical men lack administrative ability, any more than ability to cite some cases in which scientific and technical men were outstanding administrators proves that all such men are excellent administrators..... Observation suggests that administrative ability and interest are something rather separate and distinct from fields of learning and that good administrators and poor administrators may be found in almost any field.”

—LEWIS MERIAM
(in *Public Personnel Problems*)

Liaison between Government and the Private Sector

G. L. Bansal

IN the early days of capitalist development when *laissez faire* was the rule, the role of Government in economic life was limited. But during the last few decades, with developments in technology and changes in the social and political *milieu*, there has been an increase in the importance of the State in economic activity. In a country like India, which is launching upon rapid economic development in the framework of a planned economy, the State has come to acquire a dominant position. To a certain extent a planned approach to development, which, as the Draft Outline of the Second Five Year Plan points out, "necessitates an integration of economic and social policies *inter se* and in terms of the objectives and priorities on which the Plan is based", gives a more positive role to the State. The techniques or instruments to be employed in securing that such integration covers also what is referred to as the Private Sector, may have to be varied in the light of actual requirements. In a number of cases—probably a larger number than at present—fiscal or price incentives could be relied on. But whether one likes it or not, there are and will continue to be cases where licensing procedures and practices, foreign exchange allocations, sanctions of capital issues, allocation of scarce raw materials, fixation of prices, etc., will have to be resorted to. In other words, the functioning of a market economy which by definition does not need the intervention of the State has come to be supplemented in certain directions by active governmental action. The basic problem is how to evolve a system where there is sufficient mutual understanding of each other's problems and difficulties on the part of those who are concerned with private industry and business and those who are concerned with the legislation or administration of economic problems.

II

In a sense, this is not a problem peculiar to India, although its importance may be greater in the framework of

a mixed economy which is to serve as a means of evolving a socialist pattern of society. Even in a country like the United States of America where private enterprise has been considered synonymous with the freedom of the individual, the need for close liaison at various levels between governmental machinery and private enterprise has been felt, and various institutional and other devices have been adopted towards this purpose. For instance, one of the most notable examples of the liaison is the Business Advisory Council which was started in 1933 by the then Secretary of State for Commerce, Mr. Daniel C. Roper. The object of the Council was to secure the benefit of the advice and counsel of a group of public-spirited men who were successful in the conduct of business affairs. It started with a membership of about 40 which number has since increased to 60. The Council elects from itself an Executive Committee consisting of 15 members, one Chairman and four Vice-Chairmen. Though the Commerce Secretary is the general *ex officio* Chairman, he does not preside at the meetings, but he is always present. A noteworthy feature of the Business Advisory Council is that the original members were all hand-picked by the Secretary of State for Commerce. The meetings of the Council which take place from four to six times a year, supplemented by Executive Committee meetings in between, are attended also by the Assistant Secretaries in the Department of Commerce. There is regular agenda for each meeting and a brief record of the proceedings is kept, but the whole idea is that the Body advises in an informal manner. The records are not circulated even to members and no report is published in the Press. The Council has a very small staff. The main usefulness of the Council, according to those who have had opportunity to work on it, lies in the fact that it enables the business representatives to understand the Government's point of view; enables the Department of Commerce to take definite position vis-a-vis other Departments of Government; and finally gives the other Departments of Government an opportunity to have the businessmen's reactions on specific proposals, such as those pertaining to industrial relations, legislation and taxation.

In the United Kingdom, both during and after the War, liaison between Government and Industry was effected by a large number of Boards, Councils and Committees organised nationally and in appropriate cases locally as well. While no fixed pattern of composition was adopted, the general

intention was to create representative tripartite Bodies which would include nominees of Employers' Associations, Trade Unions and the Government. These Committees included representatives of the Federation of British Industries and/or the Association of British Chambers of Commerce. A smaller number of trade unionists, some civil servants, university staff or other persons were appointed in their official capacity. The most important of these bodies were the National Production Advisory Council and the National Joint Advisory Council. The former, first organised in 1941 and reconstituted in 1945, consists of seven representatives of Industry nominated jointly by the Federation of British Industries and the British Employers' Federation, seven nominees of the Trade Union Congress, two representatives of nationalised industries, senior civil servants from Ministries, generally the Board of Trade and the Ministry of Supply, and the Chairmen of the Regional Boards of Industry which are the National Council's counterparts at regional levels. The Council's function is to "advise industrialists upon industrial conditions and general production questions (excluding matters which are normally handled by the joint organisations of employers and trade unions, in connection with wages and conditions of employment), and on such questions as may arise from the proceedings of the Regional Boards for Industry". Meeting normally every two months, the Council acts as a clearing house for discussion of questions of general interest to Government, Industry and Labour.

The other Body, viz., the National Joint Advisory Council, formed in 1939 and reconstituted in 1946, comprises 17 nominees of the British Employers' Federation and 17 nominees of the Trade Union Congress together with representatives of nationalised industries. Its functions are "to advise on matters in which employers and workers have a common interest and to provide for closer consultation between the Government and organised industry. It also provides a channel through which Government can make available to both sides of industry confidential information concerning Government policy and the national economic position."

Apart from these two Bodies and a number of regional and local Boards organised to discuss and advise on economic questions at regional levels, there were a large number of

industry-wise Advisory Committees, which were set up to consider, among other subjects, science and technology, productivity, investment and industrial research. The wide range of these consultative and advisory bodies is brought out by the fact that in 1947 the Federation of British Industries was directly represented on as many as 37 such Committees and Councils. In addition, most industries and trades had their own separate Boards providing a further link between Government and Industry. In practice, the scope of the different Committees varied considerably. Some were purely advisory while others were much more than merely advisory or consultative. For example the Engineering Council possessed quasi-executive powers. An official description of it in 1951 stressed that "it is a very useful Body which produces considerable dividends, for example, disseminating the doctrine of standardisation and the best techniques supplied by the larger firms. It is a very powerful Body presided over by the Minister.....follow up action is taken. They do not just make a recommendation at one meeting and then forget it; the important points are pursued". An important contribution of the Advisory Committees was to provide forums of discussion in which Government, Industry and Labour could express their points of view and if necessary argue and defend them. Through them the Government was apprised of prevailing opinion in an industry, and industry, for its part, was kept informed of changes in Government's plans and objectives. For the Labour Government, particularly, this elaborate network of consultation served the additional purpose of lubricating the machinery of State control and in some cases replacing controls by voluntary agreements. The expansion of the steel industry and the establishment of the oil refining industry during 1945-50 were noteworthy examples of industrial development carried out by Industry after consultation with Government.

The British experience in the matter of relations between Government and Business is here described at some length, partly because it highlights the extent to which evolution of consultative machinery has been on similar lines in our country and also because the context of circumstances in post-war Britain is in some respects similar to our problems of planned development in a mixed economy.

III

In India, the spheres in which governmental machinery comes into direct contact with private commerce and industry have increased progressively with the growth of regulation and control. Although in the last three or four years there has been a decline in the importance of physical controls in the sense of rationing or allocation of materials, there still exist important controls such as those on iron and steel, cement and coal. But apart from this, the businessman has frequently to deal with Government in almost all matters pertaining to the conduct of his business. For instance, the elaborate structure of the recently amended Company Law, the existence of control over capital issues, import and export control, labour welfare legislation like Compulsory Provident Fund Scheme and Health Insurance, have all tended to increase the points of contact between the businessman and Government. One consequence of planning, whatever be the particular pattern adopted, is to increase the paperwork and form-filling by industry. No precise figures of the extent of this increase are available but there can be little doubt that the clerical work has increased considerably on account of the multifarious forms of regulation and control. In the case of the United Kingdom, for instance, between 1935 and 1948, according to the results of the 1948 Census of Production, the ratio of administrative, technical and clerical workers to production employees in industry increased from 13% to 17% and the increase was mainly a consequence of adjustment to the control apparatus. This increase in clerical—and from the employers' point of view unproductive—work is always a source of annoyance, particularly to the smaller firms, and though some lessening of burden in this regard may be feasible, it would, by and large, be difficult to achieve a regulated or planned economy, without increasing the paperwork at least in the initial stages.

It is evident that if, and to the extent to which regulation and planning take place with the consent of those affected, that process would become easier and less irksome. The question therefore arises as to the best method of ensuring that regulation and planning take place at least by consultation with, if not by the consent of those engaged in business. As in the United Kingdom, here also the elaborate machinery of regulation has at various stages come to be supplemented by non-official or semi-official advisory bodies. For instance,

the Industries (Development and Regulation) Act, which gives Government a wide variety of regulatory powers also provides for the establishment of a Central Advisory Council for Industries. According to the Act, the Advisory Council shall consist of a Chairman and such other members, not exceeding 30 in number, all of whom shall be appointed by the Central Government from among persons who are in its opinion capable of representing the interests of :—

- (a) owners of industrial undertakings in scheduled industries;
- (b) persons employed in industrial undertakings in scheduled industries;
- (c) consumers of goods manufactured or produced by scheduled industries;
- (d) such other class of persons including primary producers as in the opinion of the Central Government, ought to be represented on the Advisory Council.

The functions of the Council, however, are left somewhat vague in the Act where the only provision is that the Central Government *shall* consult the Council in regard to the making of any rules under the Act. Government *may* also consult the Advisory Council in regard to any other matter connected with the administration of the Act in respect of which the Central Government may consider it necessary to obtain advice of the Advisory Council. In practice, the Council has been meeting approximately twice a year and the discussions in the Council, which is presided over by the Minister for Commerce and Industry and attended by other Cabinet Ministers and senior officials, have been quite helpful in apprising Government of the views of Industry, Labour, etc., and also in enabling the representatives of Industry to know the Government's mind on various important issues. A Sub-Committee of the Central Advisory Council is charged with the reviewing of licences granted, refused or revoked by the Licensing Committee which, under the above Act, consists entirely of officials. The industrialist members of the Council are also informally associated with the work of the Steering Committee of the Planning Commission which again is a purely official body.

The Industries (Development and Regulation) Act also provides for the establishment and constitution of Development Councils and further lays down their functions. Development Councils, according to the Act, are to consist of members who, in the opinion of the Central Government, are :—

- (a) persons capable of representing the interests of owners of industrial undertakings in the scheduled industry or group of scheduled industries;
- (b) persons having special knowledge of matters relating to the technical or other aspects of the scheduled industry or group of scheduled industries;
- (c) persons capable of representing the interests of persons employed in industrial undertakings in the scheduled industry or group of scheduled industries;
- (d) persons not belonging to any of the aforesaid categories, who are capable of representing the interests of consumers of goods manufactured or produced by the scheduled industry or group of scheduled industries.

The functions which may be assigned to the Development Councils are listed in the Act itself as follows :

1. Recommending targets for production, co-ordinating production programmes and reviewing progress from time to time.
2. Suggesting norms of efficiency with a view to eliminating waste, obtaining maximum production, improving quality and reducing costs.
3. Recommending measures for securing the fuller utilisation of the installed capacity and for improving the working of the industry, particularly of the less efficient units.
4. Promoting arrangements for better marketing and helping in the devising of a system of distribution and sale of the produce of the industry which would be satisfactory to the consumer.
5. Promoting standardisation of products.
6. Assisting in the distribution of controlled materials and promoting arrangements for obtaining material for the industry.
7. Promoting or undertaking inquiry as to materials and equipment and as to methods of production, management and labour utilisation, including the discovery and development of new materials, equipment and methods and of improvements in those already in use, the assessment of the advantages of different alternatives and the conduct of experimental establishments and of tests on a commercial scale.
8. Promoting the training of persons engaged or proposing engagement in the industry and their education in technical or artistic subjects relevant thereto.

9. Promoting the retraining in alternative occupations of personnel engaged in or retrenched from the industry.
10. Promoting or undertaking scientific and industrial research, research into matters affecting industrial psychology and research into matters relating to production and to the consumption or use of goods and services supplied by the Industry.
11. Promoting improvements and standardisation of accounting and costing methods and practice.
12. Promoting or undertaking the collection and formulation of statistics.
13. Investigating possibilities of decentralising stages and processes of production with a view to encouraging the growth of allied small scale and cottage industries.
14. Promoting the adoption of measures for increasing the productivity of labour, including measures for securing safer and better working conditions and the provision and improvement of amenities and incentives for workers.
15. Advising on any matters relating to the industry (other than remuneration and conditions of employment) as to which the Central Government may request the Development Council to advise and undertaking inquiries for the purpose of enabling the Development Council so to advise, and
16. Undertaking arrangements for making available to the industry information obtained and for advising on matters with which the Development Councils are concerned in the exercise of any of their functions.

Development Councils have so far been formed for the following industries :

1. Heavy Chemicals (Acids and Fertilizers).
2. Internal Combustion Engines and Power-Driven Pumps.
3. Bicycles.
4. Sugar.
5. Light Electrical Industries.
6. Heavy Electrical Industries.
7. Pharmaceuticals and Drugs.
8. Heavy Chemicals (Alkalies).
9. Woollen Textiles including woollen yarn, hosiery, carpets and druggets.
10. Artificial Silk including Art Silk Yarn.

Apart from the machinery for consultation between Industry and Government outlined above, there are a number of other Committees on which industrial and trading interests are represented. For instance, there is the Capital Issues Advisory Committee which is a statutory body under the Control of Capital Issues Act, on which there are representatives of Industry. Of particular importance to those engaged in trade are the Import and Export Advisory Councils on which also there are representatives of trade either in their individual capacity or as representatives of important bodies like the Federation of Indian Chambers of Commerce and Industry. In fact, the criticisms and suggestions made by persons associated with these Councils have been in no small measure responsible for the emergence of a stable import and export policy and for procedural improvements in the working of foreign trade controls. There are also other bodies like the Customs Advisory Committees at the three main ports of Bombay, Calcutta and Madras, which help in solving the day-to-day difficulties of people engaged in trade and commerce. In the case of particular industries or trades, there are Boards or Committees with which those interested in that particular activity are associated. There are, for example, statutory Boards for Tea, Coffee, Rubber, Jute, etc., and Committees for Cotton, Oilseeds, Tobacco, etc. In addition to the representation on Consultative Committees or Councils, it is not unusual for people connected with commerce and industry to be appointed on *ad hoc* Committees for investigating particular problems. For instance, in recent years the Fiscal Commission, the Company Law Committee, the Import Trade Control Enquiry Committee, State Trading Committee, to name only a few, had businessmen amongst their members. Another important source of consultation and co-operation is the informal contact between the Ministry of Commerce and Industry and different trading interests, particularly in regard to the negotiation of bilateral trade agreements with different countries. In negotiations under the GATT also Government does from time to time seek the views of representatives of commerce and industry.

IV

The foregoing account indicates briefly the broad structure of consultation and co-operation between Government and the Private Sector. There are also other elements in the

consultation process. For instance, it is not unusual for Ministers of the Central and State Governments to inaugurate or address Chambers of Commerce and other Trade Associations. In a few cases, the Ministers also discuss matters informally with the Executive Committees of these Associations. Similarly, representatives of leading Chambers of Commerce, particularly of an important central body like the Federation of Indian Chambers of Commerce and Industry meet the Ministers and senior officials in order to discuss in an informal manner major decisions or proposals of Government. The Planning Commission, in the process of formulation of the Plan, holds a series of discussions with persons representing particular industries in order to decide upon the various targets for the Plan period. In general, therefore, it would seem that considerable opportunities already exist for frequent consultation between Government and business.

There is, however, no denying the fact that even now a feeling exists that the liaison between the two is not as good as it ought to be. This is partly a result of the political and social climate in the country and of the temper of the legislature. There is need, on the one hand, for Industry and Business to develop better public relations in the broad sense of the term and, on the other, for Government to strengthen the existing consultative machinery, mainly by giving greater weight to the opinions expressed at the consultation stage. Of course, there can be no hard and fast rule about these matters but there is a feeling, to some extent justified, that Government decisions remain largely unaffected by the weight of opinion expressed at the various Advisory Councils. There is also the criticism that there is little follow-up action on the suggestions made or even on the decisions taken. If consultation is to be real and fruitful, it is very necessary that those who are consulted are made to feel that the consensus of opinion in the particular Committee will depend upon a frank exchange of views, that the division of opinion will not be on the basis of pre-conceived judgments or conclusions and that the decisions taken will by and large be implemented by Government.

There is another question which needs further consideration. Business is represented on various Committees and Councils either by persons in their individual capacity or as representatives of particular trade or industrial Associations or Chambers of Commerce. There is much to be

said in favour of either of these two forms of representation. While it may be desirable to have eminent people associated with the work of a Committee, even though they may not hold any position in the Chambers of Commerce, there is a good reason to give representation to the organisations concerned. In particular, representatives of organisations have better opportunities for and are more likely to represent the opinion of the trade, and similarly on account of better secretarial assistance they are often in a position to follow up the discussions or the decisions in a more sustained manner. On the other hand, anyone representing an organisation is more likely to stick to a particular position rather than a person who can commit no one but himself. Probably, a combination of both the methods, as in the case of the Import and Export Advisory Councils or the Central Advisory Councils, is the more practicable solution.

Another important problem which requires urgent attention is the association of representatives of the medium and the small industries and business with the consultative machinery at various levels. The regulation and control of economic activity impinges more directly on the small and medium entrepreneurs who do not have the same command as the larger concerns over the services of experts like lawyers, accountants, etc. One of the ways in which closer liaison between Government and small business can be maintained is *by establishing offices where the small businessman will get information and clarification regarding his responsibilities under the different legislative measures*. Another way would be to establish Regional Councils which are addressed by Ministers and senior officials at regular intervals, partly to explain Government policy and partly to enable these officials to keep in touch with the opinions of small men. It would also be a useful method of contact if officials in charge of a Department, such as the Company Law Administration, make it a practice to meet groups and associations of businessmen in an informal manner to understand their grievances and explain the content of the legislation or the method and procedure of its actual implementation.

A factor which frequently causes difficulty between Government and the Private Sector is the fact that the implementation of the regulatory policies and measures has to be left in the hands of civil servants who, because of their different training, background and outlook, frequently fail to

understand or appreciate the *practical* difficulties of the businessmen. Indeed, it would not be an exaggeration to say that they sometimes do not even understand each other's language. In a country like the U.S.A. where there is a much larger interchange of personnel between government and private industry, this difficulty does not seem to be of the same importance as in a country like India. Any steps taken to promote better mutual understanding by the civil servants and businessmen, of each other's practical problems and difficulties, would help in the successful attainment of planned economy. One way could be to arrange for a deliberate plan of deputing civil servants for a period of 2 to 3 years to work and get first-hand experience in private industry and business, in exchange for businessmen deputed for similar work in government. Another method would be to bring together persons drawn from public administration and business management for joint courses of training in institutions like the Administrative Staff College at Henley in the U.K., where they live together for several months and engage in jointly studying and finding solutions for several problems. The Institute of Public Administration can also contribute to the process of promoting closer understanding between the "regulators" and the "regulated" by arranging suitable lectures and seminars and group studies. Ultimately, the success of our experiment in planned economy which relies both on the private and public sectors will depend considerably on the extent to which we succeed in making the two sectors work in harmony with each other.

Indian Airlines Corporation

Shankar Prasada

CIVIL air transport in India dates back to 1932 when Tata Sons and Indian National Airways began operations with light single-engined aircraft for the carriage of mail. The industry later expanded under the stimulus provided by Government in 1938 under the Empire Airmail Scheme and secured bigger aircraft to operate to greater frequencies. Soon after, the World War came and altered the situation drastically. Both the companies had to operate in support of the Air Force Transport Command, with their fleet of aircraft strengthened by lend-lease equipment. The result was that at the end of the War, the air services in India operated with advanced types of aircraft on a daily frequency basis and linked up most of the important administrative centres. The volume of traffic both passenger and freight continued to increase and, at the same time, a large number of twin-engined Dakotas which had proved their worth under trying conditions became available from war-surplus disposals at very low prices. In the general optimistic atmosphere, a number of airline companies came to be promoted and succeeded in securing licences for commercial operations from the Air Transport Licensing Board.

Though the airline companies did much pioneering work in developing traffic, the laws of economics could not be circumvented. The companies continued to suffer all the time from serious financial embarrassment. Some of them were forced to go into liquidation and the others started pressing for financial assistance from Government which was later given in the form of a partial rebate of excise duty on aviation spirit. At the same time, the Government of India appointed a Committee presided over by the late Mr. Justice Rajadhyaksha to examine the working of the airlines and make recommendations regarding the measures to be taken to put the industry on a stable basis. The main conclusion of the Committee was that the number of operating units in the country was much greater than that required for the volume of business available. It also found the costs of most of the

companies excessive, and worked out certain standard costs of operation as a guide to the future. Subject to some administrative reorganisation and a reduction in costs, the Committee recommended that the system of operation of airlines by private enterprise might be allowed to continue.

The financial position of the companies, however, continued to deteriorate and it became progressively clear that the industry would not only require to be subsidized in an ever-increasing measure, but would also be unable to mobilise adequate resources for undertaking urgent prospective development. The companies were not in a position to raise funds in the open market and suggested that most of the finance should come from the Government in the form of loans on a nominal rate of interest without any early prospects of repayment. Taking all this into account, the Government came to the conclusion that all the units of operation should be owned by the State. The Minister for Communications, introducing the Bill for the establishment of Air Corporations, summed up the reasons for nationalisation as follows :

- “(a) The available resources in equipment, workshop capacity, technical personnel, etc., could be used to the maximum advantage.
- (b) From the point of view of Defence requirements, operation of all air services by a State organisation would obviously be the most desirable arrangement as, in an emergency, it would be easier to make arrangements for meeting the requirements of the Defence Services.
- (c) There is the important factor that air transport is a public utility and ought to be developed in the national interest, unhampered by the paramount necessity of making a profit, which would be the ever-riding consideration in private enterprise.
- (d) A State organisation would also be able to plan the future of the industry in a more comprehensive way. Rapid developments are taking place in the technique of civil air transport and only a State organisation would be large enough and have the resources to take full advantage of such technical developments.”

The Air Corporations Act 1953, came into force on the 28th May, 1953. It provided for the setting up of two Corporations, one for the operation of long distance international air services and the other for domestic services and services to neighbouring countries. In order to ensure a smooth change-over, it was decided that the two Corporations

should take over the existing companies as going concerns with their assets and liabilities in accordance with the provisions of the Act. All personnel of the air companies, with the exception of the directors, managing agents, etc., were to be taken over, and given their existing terms of service till they were duly altered by the Corporation. Each of the two Corporations was to consist of a Chairman and not less than four and not more than eight members to be appointed by the Government of India and was given full authority and responsibility for the management of their affairs, subject only to directives, if any, issued by Government on important matters in national interest. The Corporations were further required to submit to Government in advance their annual programme of operations with financial estimates, etc. Their accounts were made subject to audit by the Comptroller and Auditor General. The Act also provided for the establishment of an Air Transport Council to tender advice on such matters of public importance as might be referred to it by Government or either of the Corporations, an Advisory Committee for the purpose of maintaining liaison with the public and a Labour Relations Committee composed of an equal number of representatives of management to be nominated by the Corporation and of employees to be elected by them. Finally, the Act provided that each of the Corporations was to 'act so far as may be on business principles', which has been interpreted to mean that its obligations as a public utility are reconciled with those of a business organisation and that it should not become a burden on the general taxpayer.

The two Corporations, viz., Indian Airlines Corporation and Air-India International, came into formal existence on the 15th June, 1953. On the 1st August, 1953, the Air-India International took over the business of Air-India International Ltd., while the Indian Airlines Corporation took over as a going concern the assets, liabilities and business of eight units, namely, Airways (India) Ltd., the Himalayan Aviation Ltd., the Kalinga Airlines, the Bharat Airways Ltd., Air-India Ltd., Air Services of India Ltd., Deccan Airways Ltd., and Indian National Airways Ltd.

To ensure co-ordination between the two Corporations the Act specifically lays down that it shall be "the duty of each of the Corporations to enter into consultations with the other in matters of common interest.. and generally in regard to ensuring fullest co-operation and co-ordination

in respect of all such matters". To facilitate uniformity of approach special care has been taken in determining the actual composition of the "Boards" of the two Corporations. The Chairman of each of the Corporations is a member of the other; and several other members, e.g., Secretary, Communications Ministry, Secretary, Finance Ministry, the Director-General of Civil Aviation and the Chief of the Air Staff are common to both. The other members are drawn from prominent persons in public life, with experience in the fields of management and labour.

II

It was evident from the very beginning that apart from the teething troubles arising out of a switch-over from one form of management to another, many other administrative and technical problems would have to be faced by the Indian Airlines Corporation in the early stages of reorganisation. The latter arose largely from the fact that the Corporation inherited the business of eight Airline companies, taking over not only their assets and liabilities, but also their different systems of accounts, costs and statistics, varying methods of production and organisation, wide disparity in the wage structure and lack of uniformity in conditions of employment. This added urgency to the problem of integration and rationalisation designed to secure effective management through uniformity in matters of policy, programme and procedure.

The first step taken in the early months of nationalisation was to introduce as an interim measure a regional type of administration to achieve a minimum of uniformity in the working of those units which were located at the same "Bases". It gave rise to the Line system of administration which meant operating each system of routes on the pattern inherited from the companies as a result of which the four units based in Calcutta, two in Bombay and one each in Delhi and Hyderabad came under the control of Resident Representatives, who in their turn were made responsible to two Regional Representatives, one for operations in the North and the other for operations in the South. Thus the pattern of administration till March 1954, centred round the Chairman, assisted by a Technical Adviser and a Secretary at the Headquarters and two Regional and three Resident Representatives at the 'Bases'. At this stage, however, despite common management under a number of administrative heads, there was no real merger and

each one of the units continued to function as a separate business entity.

The Corporation had earlier appointed a number of Committees to study in detail the problems concerning integration and rationalisation of the airlines. The route pattern inherited from the days of competitive economy had become outmoded and required revision. A reorganisation of operational and engineering bases, necessary in any case, became all the more urgent with the transfer of Air India workshops at Bombay to Air-India International and the reallocation of the workload. The operational Base at Hyderabad rendered superfluous by a shift in emphasis to Madras had to be disbanded. Other supporting services had to be reorganised and the procedure for the procurement of stores and supplies standardised. Traffic and Sales arrangements had to be readjusted to promote a free and quicker flow of business between the various units in India and abroad, based on a uniform system of documentation. The fare structure evolved at a time of unhealthy competition between the various operators could no longer be sustained. Above all, detailed rules and regulations laying down operational procedures had to be formulated and a training scheme laid down for the initiation of the personnel into the new processes.

Most important among the committees set up to study the above problems was a Technical Committee composed of senior executives which made its recommendations within a few months of nationalisation. An "Accounts and Finance" Committee, presided over by Shri N. Dandekar, I.C.S. (Retd.) and consisting of a representative of the Ministry of Finance was entrusted with the task of evolving appropriate procedures and accounting routines for effecting the financial integration of the airlines, the establishment of an internal audit organisation and suitable budgetary control to meet the requirements of public accountability. A "Services Committee" consisting of Shri Justice Puranik and Shri S.B. Bapat, I.C.S., was formed to make recommendations on the rationalisation of pay scales for the different categories of personnel and the formulation of a suitable wage structure and common service conditions in the matter of leave, holidays, bonus, provident fund, gratuity, etc. As the recommendations of the three main Committees became available, they had to be examined in the broader context

and related to each other. The recommendations of the Services Committee, in particular, could not be finalised without consultation with the representative groups of employees and trade unions who had in the meantime consolidated their position considerably. Faced with such a situation, the management constituted departmental Committees so that after due examination, the more emergent problems received prior attention.

The question of a suitable organisation pattern for the Corporation also came up for consideration almost immediately after nationalisation. It was realized that the "Line System", *i.e.*, the continuation of each of the old airlines as a self-contained operating unit of administration, should yield place as early as possible to an integrated set-up, with unified control over all branches of administration. It was accordingly decided in April 1954 to set up a Headquarters organisation consisting of a number of Departmental Heads such as Financial Comptroller, Chief Operations Manager, Engineering Manager, Chief Traffic Manager, Chief Controller of Stores and Chief Personnel Officer. The entire territory was divided into three administrative-cum-operational-cum-traffic zones, purely for convenience of physical management and not as self-contained units of business. Corresponding staff positions of responsibility were created at the three main bases, namely, Calcutta, Delhi and Bombay and each of these Areas was placed under the overall administrative control of an Area Manager who was made responsible functionally to the Departmental Heads at the Headquarters and through them to the Chairman.

From the beginning, a wide margin of authority had necessarily to be delegated by the Corporation to its principal executives subject to important decisions being reported for confirmation at subsequent meetings of the Board. The position was eventually consolidated by the framing of detailed regulations defining the scope of authority at all levels, on the assumption that the Areas should enjoy a certain measure of independence in the matter of operations, traffic, finance, accounts and personnel management. The Engineering and Stores and the attendant functions of workshop administration and control together with stores purchases and cost accounting were, however, treated as an entirely independent service catering to the needs of all Traffic-cum-operating units and subordinate to none of them. Thus except as

regards the maintenance side of Engineering, the administrative and technical control as well as accounting and financing of engineering bases was made independent of regional administration and centralised with an Engineering Manager at Headquarters acting where necessary in consultation with the Financial Comptroller.

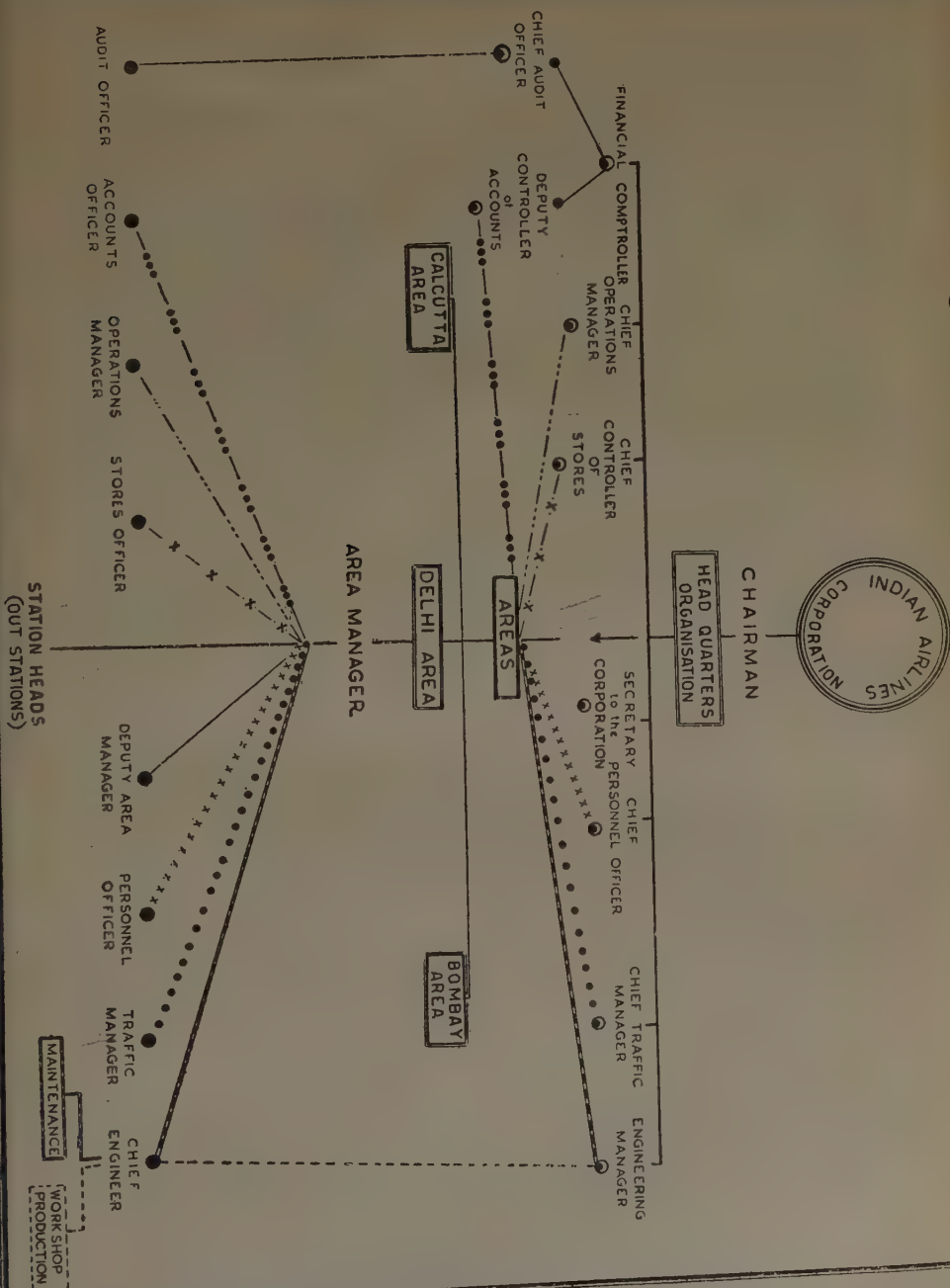
The present organisational lay-out of the Corporation is shown in the chart opposite. The Audit Officer at each Base is independent of the Area Manager and responsible through the Chief Audit Officer to the Financial Comptroller. In financial matters, differences between the Area Manager and the Local Accounts Officer have to be referred to the Financial Comptroller. At the Headquarters, the Chairman acts in consultation with the Financial Comptroller and has powers to over-rule him subject to subsequent ratification by the Board.

As soon as the broad principles of organisation had been laid down, it became necessary to fill the principal staff positions of responsibility. The choice was, however, not made easy by rival and unresolved claims of seniority between the personnel drawn from a number of airlines. *Ad hoc* decisions on the basis of the data available had to be taken, but an assurance was given that suitable adjustments would be made subsequently in the light of the principles evolved by the Services Committee. Such an arrangement, however, carried inevitably an element of uncertainty in the beginning and did much to hamper progress in the early stages.

III

Some account may now be given of the major technical and administrative problems which the I.A.C. had to face. On the operational side, while the magnitude of flying grew, there were serious depletions in the cadre of pilots for various reasons but largely owing to the demand for their services in the sister Corporation which was in a similar phase of expansion. This resulted in a serious shortage of Commanders which had to be made good speedily. Training had been considerably neglected in the past as the equipment required for it was expensive and the private operators could not afford much non-revenue flying. The new management, therefore, secured a competent Instructor from a foreign airline to train pilot instructors in the country and to

ORGANISATIONAL CHART OF THE INDIAN AIRLINES CORPORATION



standardise flying procedures. More modern aircraft which are on order would require highly specialised attention and training schemes for orienting flying personnel suitably had to be launched without delay.

In the Engineering Branch, the problem of reorganisation was even more difficult and complicated. The main workshops of the I.A.C. were situated in Delhi, Calcutta, Bombay and Hyderabad. It was decided that the overhaul workshops at Bombay should be transferred to the Air-India International with the result that the workload had to be redistributed and new workshop capacity built and skilled labour trained for the purpose at Delhi and Hyderabad. Overhaul of Viking aircraft and engines had to be shifted entirely from Bombay to Delhi. Further, the workshop equipment owned by a number of airlines in Calcutta had to be dismantled and moved into a row of contiguous hangars. Current production had to be speeded up in the midst of reorganisation, as owing to uncertainty about the terms of compensation a number of operators had adopted the policy of carrying out only the minimum of work consistent with maintaining the airworthiness of aircraft. The cabin interiors and upholstery in some cases had reached the limits of deterioration. More serious was the position in regard to spares. Months before nationalisation, the companies had stopped ordering on a long term basis and purchased just enough to keep the aircraft flying. Consequently at a time when action had to be taken to determine, classify and consolidate the holdings of individual operators and to move stores from surplus to deficit areas in accordance with the redistribution of workload, steps had also to be taken to process new indents as quickly as possible as deliveries take long to materialise in respect of aircraft not in current production.

On the Traffic side, a number of booking offices had to be amalgamated and the premises renovated. The whole system of booking agents had to be revised and new inter-line agreements with foreign operators negotiated. All these measures, however, hinged upon early financial integration as first step, without which administrative reorganisation could not keep pace. The new method of book-keeping as well as the forms in which all traffic, operations and engineering documents had to be maintained were the first to be finalised and introduced. After this, uniform and detailed

procedures for audit, costing and statistics were devised and it was only at this stage that the management relying upon scientifically distilled data could deal with the problems bearing on the economy of administration. These branches were subsequently merged into an Economics Division which now plays an active role in policy making and administration.

Of all the administrative problems, however, which the I.A.C. had to face, the most important was the integration of the personnel and introduction of revised service conditions. The Services Committee made a careful study of the pre-nationalisation practice in the several companies, of the present practice in private industry and governmental and semi-governmental organisations, and of the views placed before it by different individuals and groups on behalf of the employees. An opportunity was also given to all the interests concerned to tender written and oral evidence. The study revealed wide variations in service conditions of individuals and classes of employees. It was found that the companies had not followed any clear-cut principles or policies. The prevailing rates of salaries and wages and terms of service were the result of *ad hoc* adjustments to the pressure of supply and demand, modified in some instances by the awards of Labour Tribunals or agreements secured by organised labour. The aviation industry being both a production and a sales organisation and catering to the needs of a passenger on a scale larger than the Railways, employed a considerable variety of occupational labour for which uniform standards were not easy to determine.

With the taking over of the air companies by the Corporation, groups of employees formerly working apart and now alongside naturally began to compare and contrast varying standards of remuneration. This led to considerable discontent and loss of morale. When the report of the Services Committee was released, its recommendations were immediately seized upon by the Unions as the minimum bargaining counter and a noticeable tendency developed to secure an extension of the most favourable terms in any company to all others, to eliminate the less favourable features irrespective of their bearing on the terms of employment as a whole and to claim at the same time benefits normally admissible to Government servants. In such an atmosphere, the negotiations had naturally to be prolonged and the

basic recommendations of the Committee were accepted only after certain adjustments, arrived at on a basis of compromise.

A major factor which is, however, still an irritant is the gradation of the employees. The Committee had recommended that the assignment of an existing employee to one or the other of the new grades should depend primarily on his qualifications, experience and suitability, but it was not easy in practice to evolve yardsticks which would satisfactorily dispose of individual claims exceeding eight thousand in number. Each case had to be studied in detail on the basis of information collected from the employees and cross-checked with the personnel records of the former companies which in many cases were neither up to date nor reliable. The initial categorisation was made by a Committee consisting of the Chairman, Mr. Justice Puranik and Shri L.C. Jain, Director-General, Civil Aviation, assisted by a number of departmental committees. A general review had, however, to be undertaken later *twice* to dispose of the appeals. Even now the process is not over and a third "anomalies" Committee is busy reviewing the latest batch of representations.

Another important factor which held up rationalisation was the reluctance of the employees to face transfers from one station to another. Integration with resultant changes in workload required a reallocation of manpower at various stations, especially in respect of engineering and operations, as there were surpluses in certain categories and shortage in others. Since retrenchment was largely ruled out of consideration, necessary adjustment had to be made after patient negotiations, but it cannot be said that the process of rationalisation has been as thorough as it should have been.

IV

Much attention has been focussed recently on the present and future financial prospects of the Corporation. It is noteworthy that the financial position of the various integrating airlines differed considerably and all but a few were running at a loss despite substantial subsidies on aviation spirit totalling about Rs. 52 lakhs per year. The Corporation, therefore, inherited a group of financially unhealthy concerns and many other factors added to its burden, such as arrears of overhaul, shortage of tools and equipment, deplorable

condition of surface transport, certain unbusiness-like investments, very high emoluments in certain cases and abnormal pay increases awarded by some airlines on the event of nationalisation, sums shown as liability on account of depreciation in the Balance Sheet without corresponding assets on the other side, substantial surpluses in stores not likely to be consumed for years and serious shortages in those much in demand. Further, the directors of some airline companies had financial interests in other companies also and profit and loss transactions had sometimes been transferred from an airline company to its associate organisations when considered expedient. In the circumstances, it was not easy to carry out an accurate assessment of the assets and liabilities.

Nevertheless, an examination of the financial working of the airlines revealed that the aggregate loss for 1952—the year immediately preceding nationalisation—should have been shown as about Rs. 75 lakhs. Comparing the results of the two twelve-monthly periods of pre and post-nationalisation for which complete statistics are available, viz., the calendar year 1952 and the financial year 1954-55, the position was that the Corporation suffered a total loss of Rs. 95.73 lakhs, *i.e.*, Rs. 20.73 lakhs more. These losses were not primarily due to the operational shortcomings of the Corporation, but mainly the result of factors not directly connected with operations, but incidental to the process of reorganisation, rationalisation and development.

It is difficult to make a forecast about the future, but the financial position is not likely to be any the easier for a number of years. A major contributory factor is the rise in the wage bill which has gone up by about Rs. 60 lakhs. The Corporation has also to increase the size of its fleet to meet the growing requirements of traffic. It has already purchased 8 Herons and a 14-seater four-engined aircraft for operations on new routes as well as three Skymasters for operating the night airmail in conjunction with the three others in stock whose engines had to be modified. This involved an expenditure of over Rs. 2.5 crores which must be depreciated over a short period of 8 to 10 years. Further, more modern equipment is on order. Five Viscounts are likely to be delivered next year and the Second Five Year Plan provides for the replacement of Dakotas and purchase of more Viscounts. The costs of replacement of equipment are so

high these days that the entire fleet of 70 Dakotas is worth less than two Viscounts. Ancilliary equipment equally expensive has to be procured and thorough-going training schemes undertaken. This additional expenditure may be balanced partly by increased earnings, as has already happened in 1955-56, but it would be too much to expect that the gap would be wiped off altogether.

In the case of domestic operations, it would be interesting to note that fuel costs alone account for nearly 40% of the costs of operation unlike 10 to 15% in most other countries. Fuel in India is expensive and the Corporation has to pay a heavy fiscal duty on aviation spirit. The Air-India International as an international operator is, however, exempt from such a duty. Furthermore the passenger rate per mile charged is nearly half the international rate owing to lower purchasing power in India and keen competition with Railways whose fare structure is one of the lowest in the world. It must also be emphasised that most of the airlines in other countries receive a subsidy in some form or the other whereas the I.A.C. has lost the rebate on petrol duty and is contributing today by way of taxes nearly Rs. 1 crore a year on its present scale of operations. If allowance is made for these factors and for the rising volume of traffic, the financial prospects for the industry would not appear to be as gloomy as is sometimes made out.

V

This account would not be complete without a reference to the principles on which compensation was worked out as a result of statutory acquisition of the air companies. One method would have been to pay compensation on the basis of the average market value of the shares as quoted in the open market. This was not found feasible and the other method of compensation on the basis of the valuation of the assets of each company after making due allowance for liabilities was adopted. The general principles on which the valuation of the assets was to be made were embodied in a schedule to the Air Corporations Act, and depreciation on the cost which a company incurred when it acquired a particular asset was deducted mainly on the basis of the provisions in the Income-tax Act. An exception was made in the case of aircraft which are a special category of property as they are renewed every year under a certificate of airworthiness.

Settlement of compensation was to be by negotiation, but provision was made for adjudication of disputes by a special tribunal. A team of experienced accountants was made available by the I.A.C. for the purpose of assessment, determination and offer of compensation. The task proved highly laborious and took over 18 months to complete when the issue of bonds was handed over to the State Bank.

During the course of the valuation, a few disputes arose which were referred to a special tribunal presided over by the ex-Chief Justice of India. A number of shortcomings in the Act came to light. An important omission discovered was the absence of a clause limiting compensation to the extent that the liabilities were covered by the assets. Although compensation was to be paid by deducting liabilities from assets, all declared liabilities vested in the Corporation by another clause of the Act. The result was that while an air company whose total liabilities exceeded its assets did not get any compensation, the creditors declared by it became the creditors of the Corporation and had to be satisfied all the same. The Act further gave the companies an unfettered right to restrict the declaration of their liabilities without an option to the Corporation to demand a further declaration of even legitimate debts omitted to be so declared. This not only left the creditors at the mercy of the companies, but led to partial repudiation of contingent liabilities on account of leave, gratuity etc. payable to the employees under the company rules. Again, certain *sections* of the Act gave the Corporation wide powers to disclaim and challenge agreements and cases of declaration of assets, but these in actual practice proved illusory. Significant phrases in the *sections*, such as 'not reasonably necessary for the purposes of the Act', 'made with an unreasonable lack of prudence', 'regard being had to the circumstances of the time', made it extremely difficult for the Corporation to challenge any transactions. There were other minor discrepancies but the arrangement worked on the whole and a settlement in all the cases was finally arrived at by patient negotiations on both the sides.

VI

From the foregoing account it would appear that the most important problem facing the I.A.C. was integration of the air companies and till this had been achieved, it was not possible to

introduce rationalisation, fix costs and develop revenue. The term 'integration' covered a multitude of processes whose ramifications extended to a series of inter-connected departments. The administrative problems concerning integration of personnel, workshops, stores, etc. and standardisation of procedures in the matter of operations, accounts, costing, statistics etc. were real enough, but even more difficult to overcome were the psychological barriers rooted in past association which continued to divide the ranks of the old executives. The 'line' mentality persisted for a long time, as it does even now to some extent, giving rise to a feeling of 'tribalism', as a result of which loyalties moved around in narrow grooves. It was customary in the past for new enterprises to draw the primary nucleus of their staff from the older operators by highly competitive methods and now that the entire personnel is under one umbrella, the memories of the past smoulder and occasionally cast their shadow on the working of the I.A.C. It is, however, expected that with standardisation of wages and conditions of service and greater stability of tenure, a broader outlook would, in due course, be built up for the betterment of the I.A.C. as a whole.

The Corporation will in another few months complete nearly three years of its existence. It may be somewhat premature to comment on the results of nationalisation, but there are indications that the expectations of Government and the public have not been belied in the matter. The initial difficulties arose from the acquisition and integration of a number of units accustomed to diverse methods of working. The time-lag between the decision to nationalise and the actual legislation by Parliament created conditions in which many unhealthy practices crept in. An inevitable element of uncertainty concerning the final terms of compensation resulted in some loss of interest on the part of the old operators and weakened their sense of public responsibility in standards of performance. It naturally took time to counter-act the retarding influence of these and other factors, but once this phase was over, it became possible to devote greater attention to the consolidation of the present and the building up of the future.

Many significant steps involving capital expenditure on a scale which was beyond the resources of the private operators have already been taken, such as, the modernisation of fleet and workshop equipment, renovation of booking

offices and improved passenger amenities. Far greater attention is now paid to training of personnel, especially pilots and aircraft maintenance engineers, many of whom are now regularly sent abroad for advanced training. The public utility aspect is kept prominently in view. The Corporation opened up not only some new experimental routes and improved the night airmail services, but also rendered useful public service in areas affected by natural calamities. The working conditions of the employees have been improved considerably and the bulk of the benefit has gone to those in lower income groups. There is also growing evidence of increased output and a higher sense of responsibility.

It is also a matter of gratification that the entire personnel from the highest to the lowest is Indian and that the Corporation has been able to render useful technical assistance to some neighbouring countries, when so required. All this involved additional expenditure, but the burden on the general tax-payer has not been very heavy as the operational losses are well within the figure originally foreseen by Government.

A great deal, however, yet remains to be done and much capital expenditure and careful planning would be necessary for the purpose. Aviation industry the world over is in a fast stage of development and equipment and technical processes often become outmoded long before the capital investment has a chance of getting amortized. In the circumstances, it is not easy to keep abreast of all the changes that take place. Nevertheless, there is no doubt that Aviation has a great future in India and an important role to play in future Five Year Plans. It is to be hoped that such a role will be assigned to it and funds continued to be made available for the expansion of its fleet and engineering facilities.

People's Councils in Bulgaria

Dimo Stanchev

THE People's Councils in Bulgaria are representative and sovereign organs of state power. They are elective institutions of the working people in the towns and villages, designed to secure in the best possible way the latter's participation in the government and to afford ample opportunities for their creative energy, for their immense organisational and constructive potentialities.

The People's Councils have been established under the Constitution of Bulgaria and the details of their organisation and tasks are regulated by the People's Councils Act.

The system of People's Councils in Bulgaria is in full conformity with the country's administrative and territorial organisation. In the People's Republic of Bulgaria the following kinds of People's Councils exist today—village, city, county and district. They can be classified as follows : municipal, county and district. The class of a district council depends upon the type of the administrative unit in which it functions. In accordance with the place where they are situated, the municipalities have City or Village People's Councils, the counties have—County People's Councils and the districts—District People's Councils.

The People's Councils of all classes are elected, directly in the constituencies on the basis of universal, equal and direct suffrage by a secret ballot. The number of councillors of the various People's Councils depends on the number of citizens in the territory of the Council and the ratio of the councillors to the population varies with the "class" of the Council. In the Village People's Councils the number of councillors ranges from 11 to 35; in the counties from 25 to 80, in the district from 70 to 150 and in the cities from 21 to 101. Every Bulgarian citizen who is eligible to vote and is over the age of 18, irrespective of sex, religion, education, social status, race and national origin, may be elected a councillor. Each constituency elects one representative. The

councillors are obliged to keep in touch with their electorate and to report to them regularly. A councillor who has not justified the confidence of his electors, may be recalled any moment. All the People's Councils are elected for a term of three years.

The Councils discuss the tasks set before them at their sessions and decide how they are to be tackled. The sessions are either regular or extraordinary. The regular sessions are compulsory and take place at intervals established by the law (once every three months for the district People's Councils, once every two months in the counties and once a month in the villages). The extraordinary sessions are held whenever found necessary. The sittings of the sessions are considered legal provided that they are attended by two-thirds of the councillors and are open to the public. Any citizen can be present, ask questions, speak, criticise or make proposals. The People's Councils are legally bound to report on their activities at meetings of their electorates at least once a year in the districts and at least twice a year in the municipalities.

II

The People's Councils set up executive committees which are elected from among the councillors, and consist of a chairman, vice-chairman, secretary and members. Their exact composition depends upon the number of citizens in the territory of the People's Council concerned. At the larger People's Councils there may be two to five vice-chairmen and three to ten members.

The executive committees administer the economic, public health and educational affairs of the Council in accordance with its decisions and the orders and decrees of the higher state organs, and in full conformity with the law. They also direct, assist and control the activity of the executive committees of the lower People's Councils. In order that the executive committees may carry out their varied activities in the different branches of government, special departments, offices and services are set up, as for instance in communal economy and town planning, rural economy, trade, local industries and the crafts, education, finance, etc. The People's Council distributes the management of the departments, offices and services among the chairman, vice-chairmen and the secretary of the executive committee.

In fulfilling their tasks as genuine representative organs, the People's Councils rely upon the large-scale participation of the people through their political, professional and popular organisations. For enlisting such wide public co-operation, the Councils have established permanent commissions which include representatives of the various organisations. Separate commissions have been set up for subjects like agriculture, education, public health, finance, communal economy, town planning, etc. These permanent commissions are auxiliary bodies. They consist of a chairman and from two to ten members. With the help of the public, the Fatherland Front and other popular organisations, a large number of "activists" is drawn into their work, with whose assistance thousands of working people contribute their experience and efforts to the prompt and successful solution of the tasks of the Councils. In the work of the 12 thousand permanent commissions which were set up during the second term of the People's Councils, about 360 thousand electors were drawn into it as "activists". The permanent commissions see to it that the work in their sectors is carried out well, they investigate the proposals and requests of the population, report on them to the Council and suggest measures for putting them into effect. At the sessions they read co-reports on topical questions, take part in formulating decisions, and help to put them into practice as well as the decisions of the higher people's councils and state organs.

III

The People's Councils settle all issues of local importance and carry out tasks of national importance. They are in charge of town planning and public health. At the moment 97.8 per cent. of the functioning health institutions in the country are on the budget of the People's Councils. The People's Councils also guide the work of the cultural institutions in their territory; they see to physical education, particularly among the younger generation.

The Councils further look after the mechanisation of agriculture and supervise the work of the machine and tractor stations where the majority of farm machines are concentrated. They have done a great deal of explanatory work so as to persuade the private farmers to join the co-operatives and to give energetical assistance in the work of organising and economically strengthening the co-operative farms.

The supervision of local industry is altogether entrusted to the People's Councils. The Councils have managed to organise and are in charge of 126 industrial enterprises covering over 4,000 workshops which produce various items. They direct and control the development of trade along the lines of people's democracy, of supplying the working people with consumer goods, of extending the trade network and increasing the assortment of goods. They guide the work of the craftsmen, organise and run enterprises for communal transport and for various communal public services. They ensure that state property in their territory is properly managed and supervise and assist the correct course of work in the enterprises of nationwide importance.

To conclude, by maintaining constant contact with the large masses of people, whose assistance and initiative they utilise, the People's Councils have, in their six years' existence, done a great deal in the struggle for the fulfilment of the state economic plans for the country's socialist industrialisation, the socialist reconstruction of agriculture and the satisfaction of the working people's needs in the spheres of public health, everyday life and culture.

".....however much people may complain about the "evils of bureaucracy", it would be sheer illusion to think for a moment that continuous administrative work can be carried out in any field except by means of officials working in offices. The whole pattern of everyday life is cut to fit this framework. For bureaucratic administration is, other things being equal, always, from a formal, technical point of view, the most rational type. For the needs of mass administration to-day, it is completely indispensable. The choice is only that between bureaucracy and dilettantism in the field of administration."

—MAX WEBER

(in *'Theory of Social and Economic Organisation'*)

Public Service Commissions—An Indian Approach

S. B. Bapat

IT is a universally accepted principle of democratic government that there should be some organ or authority (variously called as 'Civil Service Commission', 'Public Service Commission', 'Public Service Board', etc.) independent of the political executive, to deal with recruitment and management of public services. The basic intention is to ensure equality of opportunity and treatment for all citizens and guard against the evil effects of nepotism or favouritism. In actual practice, however, there are wide variations in different countries in regard to the powers and functions of such authorities and the extent to which they play the executive or advisory roles.

Without attempting anything in the nature of a comparative study, it is proposed in this brief note to indicate how the problem has been approached in India and to bring out the important and interesting features of the solutions adopted.

II

India is a union of States and as in other federal structures, there is a Union Government and a separate Government for each constituent State. The Central Government has its own public services, distinct from the public services of the different States and correspondingly there is a Union Public Service Commission for the Centre and separate State Public Service Commissions for the States. The provisions relating to these bodies are contained in Part XIV of the Constitution of India which is entitled "Services under the Union and the States". Some of the provisions are almost verbatim reproductions of corresponding provisions of the Government of India Act, 1935 in force in the pre-independence days. The framers of the Constitution of India have, however, introduced some extremely important additions and modifications which for the first time truly emphasize and ensure the independence of the Public Service Commissions, and the

ultimate authority of the legislature over the relationship between the Commissions and the Executive Governments.

Worthy of special note is the fact that the Public Service Commissions in India have been created by the Indian Constitution itself and not, as in most other countries, by a mere Act of the legislature. The respective powers and functions of the Commissions and the Governments as laid down in India, cannot be amended except by following the very much more difficult procedure prescribed for an amendment of the Constitution. It will not be possible for any Government with only a small majority in Parliament to loosen or shake off the controls provided by the Constitution in favour of the Public Service Commissions.

III

In regard to the composition of the Public Service Commissions, the Indian pattern is so designed as to ensure that in the consideration of matters relating to the public services, sufficient weight will be attached to the view-point of public servants themselves. Thus, although the appointments to the Union Public Service Commission are made by the President and the number of members of the Commission may be fixed by the President according to the requirements from time to time, he is bound under the Constitution to see that at least half the members of that body will be persons who have been themselves in the ranks of public servants for at least 10 years. In fact, in the actual composition of the membership of the Union Public Service Commission, the proportion of "former-public-servants" has been very much larger than the minimum prescribed. Furthermore, though the law is silent on the point, the Central Government as well as State Governments have hitherto taken care to see that none of the appointments made to the Public Service Commissions would give the appearance of being "political appointments". Persons, other than former-civil-servants, selected for appointment to Public Service Commissions have generally been drawn from the ranks of educationists, lawyers and retired judges. A specially interesting feature in India is that some of the members of the Union Public Service Commission are persons who have already served as members of the State Public Service Commissions.

In order to emphasize and ensure the independence of Public Service Commissions, the framers of the Constitution have thought fit to provide that the persons who have been members of the Public Service Commissions would thereafter be debarred from any employment under the Central or State Governments except, in certain circumstances, as members or chairmen of some other public service commissions. The object evidently is to leave no room even for suspicion that the promise or prospect of further employment under the Executive Government might operate or be used to influence the judgment of members of the Public Service Commissions. So far as the writer is aware, such an absolute ban on other employments does not exist in any other country. Even in India, the holders of other comparable high offices such as judges of the High Courts and Supreme Court, the preservation of whose independence from the Executive is equally important, are not debarred from further employment under the Government. Many distinguished foreign observers have pointed out that the prescription of such a ban implies a lack of faith in the integrity of the political leaders who compose the Governments, and also of the persons who are selected for appointment as members of the Public Service Commissions. This point also emerged during the debates in the Constituent Assembly when the relevant provision was under discussion. And it must in a way be accounted to the credit of the framers of the Constitution that they were prepared to introduce so drastic a provision in order to place the independence of the Public Service Commissions beyond a shadow of doubt.

IV

When it came to the definition of powers and functions of the Commissions, however, the framers of the Constitution recognised the ultimate responsibility of the Government of the day for the proper management of public affairs including public services, and they have, therefore, assigned to the Public Service Commissions what is essentially an advisory and consultative rather than executive role. In a parliamentary democracy, the political executive is fully responsible to the legislature for the proper implementation of the policies embodied in the laws passed by the legislature. Such implementation has necessarily to be carried out through the agency of the Public Services. In the last analysis,

therefore, those who are responsible for carrying out any task must be left free to judge the adequacy of the temper and the quality of the tools to be employed in that job. At the same time, it is also necessary that equality of opportunity is assured and to see and demonstrate to all that nepotism and favouritism have no scope. In an effort to balance the ultimate responsibility of Government with the need for an independent consideration of problems relating to recruitment and management of the Public Services, the Constitution of India provides a series of inter-locking safeguards.

The only truly executive function of the Public Service Commissions in India is to conduct examinations for recruitment to the organised Public Services. With regard to the rest, when translated into general terms, the Constitution only requires that the Commission *shall be consulted* (i) on the methods of recruitment and principles to be followed in making appointments to and promotions and transfers within the Public Services; (ii) on the suitability of the candidates for such appointments, promotions and transfers; and (iii) on disciplinary matters affecting public servants.

With such an approach, a number of problems would immediately arise. "Surely there are many posts of such a nature that the responsibility for making appointments should be clearly placed on the shoulders of the Government and it will be inappropriate that Government should be required to consult an outside body in selecting the appointees?" "Will there not also be a large number of low grade posts where recruitment in consultation with the Commission however desirable, might well be impracticable?" "What about cases where eminent persons with high technical qualifications are needed? surely, they are not going to apply and appear for interviews before the Commission?" "And what about the cases when genuine emergency arises and immediate appointment has to be made and there is no time to consult the Commission?" These difficulties were realised even in the pre-independence days and there was at that time a provision in the law enabling the Government to make regulations excluding certain cases or types of cases from the purview of the Commission. But such a provision, in its turn, raises the question: "What will happen if the Government chooses to abuse the powers so to exclude? If such exclusion is freely resorted to, might it not defeat the very object of having Public Service Commissions at all?"

The Constitution-makers, therefore, made a new provision which while retaining the power to exclude makes it incumbent upon the Government to submit the matter to the final judgment of the legislature. The regulations made in this behalf have to be laid before the appropriate legislature and are subject to such amendment as the legislature may make. This effectively curbs any tendency on the part of the Governments to abuse the power to exclude from the purview of the Commission cases on which the Commission ought to be consulted.

V

The basic approach of recognising the ultimate responsibility of Government may give rise to two other questions : (i) if the Commission is merely a consultative body, what guarantee is there that the Government will indeed consult the Commission in all matters in which consultation is necessary; and (ii) what sanction is there that after the Commission has given its advice that advice will in fact be accepted by the Government? The pre-independence provisions were silent on these points. The framers of the Indian Constitution have, however, made specific provision by adopting the device of using the legislature as the ultimate judge of Governments' actions. It is, therefore, provided that the Public Service Commissions shall submit annually a report on their working, that such report shall be laid before the legislature and that in so laying it, the Government of the day shall give an explanation in regard to all cases in which the advice of the Public Service Commission was not accepted. This provision simultaneously ensures that consultation with the Commission is not overlooked, that the advice of the Commission is as a rule accepted, and that the Government are free in cases where they consider the matter of sufficient importance, to follow their own judgment provided they are prepared to justify their action before the legislature.

The Central Government have had to consult the Union Public Service Commission every year on about six thousand cases. How well the constitutional safeguard has worked is

shown by the extremely small number of cases in which the Commission's advice was not accepted.

<i>Year</i>	<i>Total Number of cases in which advice not accepted</i>
1950-51	6
1951-52	2
1952-53	2
1953-54	4
1954-55	1

VI

This brief note deals only with the way the problem was approached and solved by the framers of the Indian Constitution. The system devised by them has now been working for over six years and has, in general, undoubtedly stood the test. But the mere mechanics of conducting a system of such delicate checks and balances and of achieving co-operative understanding between Government departments and agencies on the one hand and the Public Service Commissions on the other, raised other problems. What these problems were and how they have been solved will be the subject of the next article in this series.



"The fine art of executive decision consists in not deciding questions that are not now pertinent, in not deciding prematurely, in not making decision that cannot be made effective, and in not making decisions that others should make."

—CHESTER I. BARNARD
(in *'The Functions of the Executive'*)

On Confidential Reports

(One of the most difficult aspects of good personnel management is to devise reliable and workable methods to secure an objective assessment of the qualities and performance of individual public servants of all grades. The problem has been considered on numerous occasions by numerous committees and authorities and many different solutions evolved. By the courtesy of the Government of the Colony of Fiji, we reproduce below an extract from the Report of a Committee set up by that Government in 1955 to consider civil service promotions and allied matters. It consists of a set of notes for the guidance of the officers who write or countersign the confidential reports and of two forms of such reports—one 'Ordinary' and the other 'Special'—a model which may well be universally adopted with such small variations as local conditions require.—Ed.)

I

NOTES FOR REPORTING AND COUNTERSIGNING OFFICERS

1. *Nature and Object of Reports.*—Confidential Reports should be submitted six-monthly for officers on probation and annually for all other officers. They are intended to build up a systematic record of an officer's qualifications and progress and to throw up any weaknesses requiring attention. It is most important, therefore, that they are prepared intelligently, responsibly and conscientiously.

In addition to the Ordinary Report, a Special Report is required on any officer judged to be substantially above or below average; in the former case to provide additional information required when the officer is being considered for promotion, and in the latter to assist towards deciding whether the officer should be re-trained or released.

Reporting and Countersigning Officers must bear in mind that Confidential Reports are important documents which are carefully scrutinized by the appropriate Staff Boards. They are expected to spend sufficient time on preparation of these Reports and must remember they may at any time be required to substantiate or elaborate upon statements made.

It is impossible to judge the personal qualities of people from their work alone so Reports must be based on knowledge of the individual as well as his work. It will often be found that some of the personal qualities cannot be assessed because the officer has had no opportunity to display them in

the course of his duties; in such cases the letter "N.A." (for Not Applicable) should be put against the headings.

Whilst the main object of the Report is to give a fair assessment of the way each officer performs his duties and what special merits or weaknesses are revealed, there are other useful purposes :

- (a) Assisting in placing officers in duties for which they are best suited;
- (b) Giving a picture of the general quality of staff in any section;
- (c) Providing some incentive to good work, and confidence among the staff, in that officers know that they will be reported upon regularly;
- (d) Testing the Reporting Officer's own powers of discernment. His capacity to be objective can be judged partly by the reports he makes on his staff.

2. *Avoidance of Bias.*—The most difficult task of the Reporting Officer is to report objectively. It is an almost impossible ideal to avoid completely the influence of his own personality in his judgment of others but he should endeavour to recognize the factors within himself that may produce bias; of which the following are examples :

- (a) Bias due to personal likes and dislikes;
- (b) Bias due to type of work done. The Reporting Officer may have a special interest in a particular kind of work and may therefore be inclined to give undue credit to a man engaged on it;
- (c) Bias due to a clash of personality. The Reporting Officer's judgment may be affected by his own possession or lack of certain marked characteristics of the officer reported on.

3. *Keeping a level standard.*—This also is not easy to achieve in a field where there are no absolute standards but the attempt must be made to avoid turning geese into swans, or the reverse. There is a general tendency to overgrade out of kindness and to give "the benefit of the doubt" instead of a more strictly accurate assessment. This is particularly

unfair to the colleagues of the officer reported on, who may better deserve the higher marking; also to the senior officers and staff boards who have to work from the reports and who are entitled to expect that broadly comparable people are included in each category. Moreover a Reporting Officer who is thus found to be lax reveals himself as failing in an important responsibility.

In guarding against these tendencies the Reporting Officer should endeavour to check his opinions and standards against those of other reporting officers where this is practicable; he should refrain from undue enthusiasm and excessive caution and he should be careful not to assess merit *solely* by reference to the officer's immediate colleagues.

It is essential that the report should cover the whole year; undue weight should not be given to outstanding merits or startling mistakes made during the few weeks immediately preceding the date of reporting. The keeping of private records of markings by Reporting Officers for purpose of reference when the next report is required is deprecated.

Wherever, as is usual, there is an intermediate supervising officer between the Reporting Officer and the individual who is reported on, the intermediate supervisor must be consulted before a report is completed. The Reporting Officer is, of course, not bound by the supervisor's judgment but he should take it into account as far as is reasonable.

4. *Assessment of qualities.*—The report form makes no provision for the assessment of a factor as "average"; the Reporting Officer must make a definite determination. The assessment should be based upon knowledge of the officer's official work and behaviour; knowledge of his habits and interests outside his official duties should influence the marking only to the extent that they affect the performance of his duties, but this may be an important consideration.

If an officer satisfies reasonable expectations and leaves no room for complaint the appropriate assessment is "good". Above-average for the grade would be assessed as "very good". Exceptional personality, capacity and performance in his grade would merit "outstanding". Wherever "outstanding" or "poor" assessments are given the Reporting Officer should give reasons for the markings. An officer given a "poor" marking should be notified by the Reporting

Officer unless in his opinion such notification would be likely to affect the officer's health adversely or unless the shortcomings have already been notified and it is clear that no useful purpose could be served by repeating it.

The markings should apply to capacity and performance in the officer's present grade; an officer may be quite well marked without necessarily being ready or suitable for promotion.

The general standard of officers in a particular section may be very high or very low, and this average may vary from time to time. The officer being reported on should not be judged only by reference to this standard but in relation to the standard which could reasonably be expected of the grade.

Reporting officers should enter additional comment on the report to explain any extreme markings, to explain any apparent inconsistency in markings, or to mention anything such as physical disability or inexperience.

5. *Assessment for promotion.*—Reporting officers should bear in mind that promotion is not given as a reward for past services but is primarily given in the interests of the work. No one has a prescriptive right to promotion and the fact that an officer does his present job very well does not necessarily mean that he is fitted for promotion nor, even if he is, that there may not be others who are better fitted.

Generally speaking a reporting officer should not recommend an officer as fit for promotion unless he would be perfectly satisfied to retain the officer on his staff in the higher grade.

6. *Adverse Reports.*—There is a natural tendency to avoid giving bad marks, but failure to report truthfully may cause unfairness in promotion and bad relations between members of the staff. Reporting officers should be vigilant and able to recognize any signs of falling quality or quantity of work. They should warn an officer of his deficiencies immediately they are noticed and a formal adverse report should be regarded as a last resort after other measures have failed.

Supervising officers should regard it as a primary responsibility to give personal guidance to staff who show shortcomings and advise and assist them to overcome their

defects. Informal action at an early stage will often be sufficient to remedy a failing. If shortcomings persist the next step should if possible be an interview with a senior officer and generally a formal adverse report should not be made until the officer reported on has been informed in an interview that failure to improve will have this result.

Any written adverse report must be couched in precise terms with details and instances of the officer's shortcomings; vague generalities about conduct or inefficiency should be avoided.

7. Duties of Countersigning Officers.—Countersigning officers should endeavour to assist reporting officers to achieve a reasonably uniform standard of assessment. They should scrutinize reports carefully, paying particular attention to any inconsistencies, any general comments, what they themselves know of the staff concerned and their work and what they know of the reporting officer and his likely standards.

If a countersigning officer seriously disagrees with a reporting officer's assessment he should take the point up with the reporting officer.

Countersigning officers will have to deal with a much larger number of individuals than any one reporting officer; they should be in a position to recognize an unduly large proportion of "outstanding" or "poor" assessments and to find out the reasons for any variations from the normal distribution of qualities.

II

ORDINARY CONFIDENTIAL REPORT

(This is a confidential document. It will be seen by a few senior Officials only. Please state the facts correctly and your views frankly.)

SECTION 1

(to be completed by officer concerned.)

NAME (BLOCK LETTERS).....JOINED GOVT.
SERVICE ON.....

DESIGNATION.....DEPARTMENT.....

1. Please state briefly the duties performed in the past 12 months :

.....
.....

2. Were these duties the same as those performed a year ago? Yes No

2(a) If your present duties are different please state briefly what duties you performed a year ago :.....

.....
.....
.....

3. Are you content with your present post? Yes No

3(a) If you are not content, please state why, and the type of work you would prefer :

.....
.....
.....

4. What are your spare time hobbies? (Please give details) :

.....
.....
.....
.....

5. Are you taking any course of instruction in your spare time? Yes No

5(a) If so, please give details :

.....

6. Please give particulars, including dates, of any professional or technical qualifications held and service examinations passed :

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

ADDRESS

SIGNATURE:.....

SECTION II

(to be completed by Reporting Officer.)

PERIOD UNDER REVIEW : (from.....195...to.....195...)

1. My assessments of factors concerning this officer's performance of his/her duties are given below :

	Very Good	Good	Fair	Poor
Knowledge and experience of work
Reliability and accuracy
Tenacity of purpose
Effective output of work
Ability to follow instructions
Clarity of expression in English :				
(a) Written
(b) Oral
Courtesy in dealing with public
Ability to supervise others
Ability to co-operate with colleagues...

2. My comments on this officer's personal qualities are, briefly, as follows :
- | | |
|------------------------------------------|-------|
| Personality and force of character | |
| General intelligence | |
| Judgment and commonsense | |
| Adaptability | |
| Initiative | |
| Energy and drive | |
| Integrity | |
| Acceptance of responsibility | |
| Man management | |

3. In view of the above :

*I am submitting the attached Special Confidential Report

or

*I have no reason to submit a Special Confidential Report

4. I have known this officer for.....years/months.

Reporting Officer's Name
(in Block Letters)

Reporting Officer's Signature

Designation.....

Date :.....

*Delete whichever does not apply.

SECTION III

(to be completed by Countersigning Officer.)

- *I do not know the officer concerned.
- *I have known the officer concerned for.....years/months.
- *I agree/disagree with the assessments and comments made by the Reporting Officer.

My own views are:.....

Countersigning Officer's Name
 (in Block Letters)

Countersigning Officer's Signature

Designation..... Date.....

*Delete whichever does not apply.

III

SPECIAL CONFIDENTIAL REPORT

SECTION I

(to be completed by Reporting Officer.)

NAME (BLOCK LETTERS).....

DESIGNATION..... DEPARTMENT.....

PERIOD UNDER REVIEW (from.....195...to.....195...)

1. I have known this officer for.....years/months.
2. In addition to the assessments and comments given in the Ordinary Confidential Report, I wish to record the following special observations which may assist in arriving at a fair and balanced evaluation of this officer :

.....

3. My overall assessment of this officer is as follows :

Above Average

Outstanding (exceptional in personality
 capacity and performance)

Very Good (able and efficient)

Below Average

Fair (performs duties moderately only)

Poor (not up to duties of grade)

4. I recommend that the following action should be taken :

.....

.....

.....

5. *I realise that this is an adverse report and have communicated its contents to the officer concerned.

*I have not communicated the contents of this report to the officer concerned because :

.....

6. During the period under review this officer has been absent as follows (number of days) :

Vacation Leave.....Sick Leave.....Study Leave.....

Reporting Officer's Name
(in Block Letters)

Reporting Officer's Signature

Designation.....

Date.....

*Delete if not applicable.

SECTION II*(to be completed by Countersigning Officer.)*

*I do not know the officer concerned.

*I have known the officer concerned for.....years/months.

*I agree/disagree with the Reporting Officer's overall assessment and recommendations.

My own views are :

.....

.....

.....

.....

Countersigning Officer's Name
(in Block Letters)

Countersigning Officer's Signature

Designation.....

Date.....

*Delete as required.

SECTION III

(to be completed by Head of Department or by Controller of Organization and Establishments in case of interchangeable staff.)

I recommend the following course of action :

.....
.....
.....
.....

Signature.....

Date..... Designation.....

SECTION IV

Record of Action taken

(all relevant references to be quoted.)

Date..... Signature.....

Designation.....

Editorial Notes

With this issue the *Journal* starts on the second year of its existence. With the large measure of appreciative support we have been receiving from India and abroad, we shall confidently continue our efforts to maintain and improve the standard of service rendered by the *Journal*.

One more department has now been added in the form of a section, entitled "Correspondence". The letter published on page 73 raises an issue and makes practical suggestions which are of importance not only to the administrators and citizens of Delhi but also to those in other areas.

All readers are invited to write to us on any question relating to any aspect of administration, about which they have helpful and practical suggestions to make. Mere destructive criticism does no one much good but constructive suggestions, even on minor matters, may lead to important and lasting reforms.

—*Editor*

Indian Institute of Public Administration
Director's Quarterly Report

(January—March 1956)

I. Seminar on the Study and Teaching of Public Administration at the Indian Universities

It has been decided to convene a Seminar on the "Study and Teaching of Public Administration at the Indian Universities" on the 11th and 12th May, 1956, in New Delhi. The Seminar will be open to the Directors of Institutes, Heads of University Faculties or Departments and Instructors of Public Administration. It will discuss the aims and contents of courses in Public Administration given/to be given at the Indian Universities and the School of Public Administration which the Institute intends to set up by the Spring of 1958. The Seminar will also discuss plans for preparing study material on Public Administration, which is still wanting. Mr. Paul H. Appleby is expected to attend the Seminar.

II. Lectures

Col. Lyndall F. Urwick, Vice-Chairman of the British Institute of Management, who was recently in India to advise and assist the Government of India in the development of management education and training and executive development programme, gave an interesting and illuminating talk to a meeting of the local Members of the Institute on the 15th March, 1956, on 'Management and Government'. Over 300 Members attended.

III. Library

The second instalment of the "Author Catalogue" of about 600 books is being published. A list of books acquired but still in the process of being catalogued has also been supplied to the Members. The total number of books and reports in the Library has increased to 3,500—an increase of 1,000 over the last quarter.

The Ministry of Education has kindly earmarked for the benefit of the Institute a sum of \$5,000 under the Wheat Loan Educational Exchange Programme for obtaining books and

technical documentation on public administration and allied subjects from the United States.

IV. Office Premises and Staff

With the expansion in the Institute's activities, the existing accommodation at Sapru House is already proving inadequate. Additional rooms have been rented at the Curzon Road Barracks from the Estate Office for accommodating the Research and Training Division of the Institute. The main offices of the Institute will, however, continue to function at Sapru House, Barakhamba Road.

V. Second Annual General Meeting

The Second Annual General Meeting of the General Body of the Institute will be held at 4 p.m. on Saturday, the 7th April, 1956, at Sapru House, New Delhi. The Prime Minister, Shri Jawaharlal Nehru, will preside. Arrangements have been made to enable the Members wishing to attend the meeting, to enjoy the concession of doing the two-way railway journey on payment of a single fare.

VI. Elections to the Executive Council for 1956-57

A notice was issued on the 4th February, 1956, to all Members asking for nominations for elections to the Executive Council for 1956-57. The nomination papers were scrutinized on the 21st February. After ruling out of order the two nomination papers received after the due date and leaving out of account the nomination papers of seven candidates who had communicated the withdrawal of their candidature before scrutiny, it was found that only fifteen nomination papers were valid. As the number of candidates did not exceed the number of members to be elected under Rule 14 of the Rules of the Institute, these fifteen candidates stand elected for the Executive Council for the year 1956-57.

The names of the elected members will be announced at the Second Annual General Meeting to be held on the 7th April, 1956,

Correspondence

Sir,

With the adoption of a socialist pattern of society as the ultimate object, it is necessary that every citizen receives appropriate medical care irrespective of his ability to pay for it. In face of the vast areas of our countryside and the difficulty of communications it further becomes increasingly important that the medical care should be carried to the homes of the people or as near as possible. The Health Survey and Development Committee (Bhore Committee) which went into the question of the reorganisation of health services laid special emphasis on the point and it is also one of the avowed aims of the Community Development Programme.

Recent developments in the field of health administration in the capital city of India have not, however, been in *full* consonance with the above concept. Since the partition of the country, a number of townships have been set up in the outskirts of Delhi and New Delhi to house the displaced persons. At the time of the construction of these townships, e.g., Patel Nagar, Tilak Nagar, Malviya Nagar, Lajpat Nagar, Kalka Ji, etc., it was decided to set up a Health Unit in every one of them to render appropriate medical care to the displaced persons. These Health Units started functioning in 1953. In each of the Units there is an out patient department and indoor accommodation for 15 beds. Provision has also been made for maternal and child health services which are being run in a very satisfactory manner. But no arrangements have yet been made for X-ray or adequate laboratory facilities or other specialist's services. Patients requiring these services are referred, from all these townships, to the Irwin Hospital, New Delhi. For all surgical treatment, even for setting up a simple fracture, cases are sent to the Irwin Hospital. If the doctor in charge of a Health Unit needs any specialized advice, he, too, has to refer the matter to the appropriate specialist in the Irwin Hospital. The referral system applies also to cases requiring laboratory diagnosis. This entails a great deal of hardship to the patients and their relatives who have to spend a good part of the day in travelling by buses or other conveyance to the Irwin Hospital. Very

often, having reached the Hospital, the patients are asked to come again on the following day, because they had not come in time or because there are too many others to attend to, or for other similar reasons. Consequently, the patients tend to put off going to the Irwin Hospital until the case has really become serious and has to be hospitalised.

It was, therefore, suggested to those responsible for the administration of health services in Delhi State that mobile units of X-ray and laboratory technicians and equipment should be sent to these outlying townships on fixed days in a week so that each Health Unit was visited on alternate days. These mobile units could take X-ray pictures and collect specimens for pathological examination and hand in the results to the medical officers in charge of the Health Units on their next visit.

It was further suggested that similarly, expert surgical, medical, ophthalmic and E.N.T. teams could go round, perform operations and give advice.

These suggestions do not appear to have been accepted except that for a short while an honorary medical consultant was appointed to visit the townships once a week. The medical officer in charge of the Health Unit would collect cases on the fixed day for advice from the specialist but unfortunately in majority of cases all that the Medical specialist could do was to refer the patient for X-ray and laboratory examination to the Irwin Hospital. Even this honorary medical consultant left the job after a brief period.

The Health Units are fairly well equipped and staffed, and with a little more equipment, if necessary, a good deal of operative surgery can be carried out locally. The major operations where continuous attendance by the expert staff is essential would of course have to be referred to the Irwin Hospital. There are always a number of cataract and other eye cases requiring expert attention which can be collected on fixed days and arrangements made to carry out operations. Regular visits, say, twice a week, by mobile vans, carrying X-ray and laboratory equipment and technicians and surgical, ophthalmic and dental specialists can go a long way to carry medical care to the less fortunate members of the community who have neither the time nor the means to undergo the ordeal of travelling to and from the Irwin Hospital spending whole day in the process. The new arrangements may

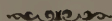
require some additional whole-time technical staff but it should not be difficult to utilize the services of the specialists attached to the Irwin Hospital to visit the Health Units once or twice a week. If properly approached, they would not deny themselves the pleasure of carrying expert medical and surgical services to the people living in the suburbs and rural areas of Delhi. Local medical association may also, with advantage, be brought into the picture to elicit advice and help.

Delhi State has always been a pioneer in new experiments in the field of medical care. The first Maternity and Child Health team and the first B.C.G. team with the aid of W.H.O. and U.N.I.C.E.F. and a few other "Firsts" were started in Delhi. It can also give a lead in the provision of medical care to the people in suburban and rural areas. It is to be hoped that the Delhi State Department of Health will reconsider the matter and make a start with mobile X-ray and specialist Units at least on an experimental basis.

Yours etc.,

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(The author of this letter was himself in charge of one of the Health Units in the young townships. We have, however, his desire to remain anonymous because the views expressed in the letter contain implied criticism of the authorities under whom he served.—Ed.)



News from India and Abroad

1. CANADA

Advisory Committee for Municipal Affairs

The Ontario Government have set up a seven-member Advisory Committee on Municipal Affairs, with Elmer Brandon as its Chairman, to advise the Minister for Municipal Affairs personally, assist him especially during sessions of the Legislature and meet at his call. All existing acts and regulations dealing with municipal affairs and assessment problems will be reviewed and it is expected that the Committee's recommendations will greatly help to "streamline" the Ontario municipal law.

Employment of Married Women in Public Services

The Civil Service Commission of Canada have approved the revocation of the sections of the Civil Service code relating to married women. This means that : (1) married women are now eligible for permanent appointments in public service; (2) single woman employees in public employment will no longer be required to resign if they marry, and the Civil Service Commission shall re-certify such employees in their married names; and (3) married women who were permanent employees and were forced to resign by former regulations will now be eligible for immediate permanent employment in the public service.

2. INDIA

Visit by Mr. Paul H. Appleby

Through the courtesy of the Ford Foundation and at the invitation of the Government of India, arrangements have been made for another visit to India by Mr. Paul H. Appleby whose previous two visits were largely instrumental in bringing about the initiation of important steps in administrative reform in the country. Mr. Appleby is expected to arrive in India in the middle of April 1956 and will stay for about two months. After his last visit to India in 1954, Mr. Appleby was specially invited to take up the duties of the Director of Budget for the State of New York with an annual budget exceeding \$ 1,000 million. During his stay in India, Mr. Appleby will attend the Seminar on "The Study & Teaching of Public Administration at Indian Universities" which is being convened by the Indian Institute of Public Administration on the 11th and 12th May, 1956. He will also assist the Institute in working out a detailed plan of work for its School of Public Administration which, it is hoped, will start functioning by the Spring of 1958.

Administration in the Second Five Year Plan

The Planning Commission have, in 'A Draft Outline' of the Second Five Year Plan, pointed out that as development proceeds "the expression 'administration' steadily assumes a broader content. It includes within its scope the building up of personnel, training of men, running the administrative machine, seeking the co-operation and participation of the people, informing and educating the public and, finally, organising a sound system of planning based as much on the participation of people at each level as on the best technical, economic and statistical information available. If the administrative machinery, both at the Centre and in the States, did its work with efficiency, integrity and with a sense of urgency and purpose, the success of the Second Plan would be fully assured. Thus, in a very real sense, the Second Five Year Plan resolves itself into a series of well defined administrative tasks which could perhaps be classified into certain broad categories as follows :

- (1) ensuring integrity in administration;
- (2) building up administrative and technical cadres;
- (3) organising large-scale training programmes in all fields and mobilising all the available training resources, including public and private institutions, industrial and other establishment, apprenticeship and in-service training;
- (4) devising speedy, efficient and economic methods of work, providing for continuous supervision, and arranging for objective evaluation of results at regular intervals;
- (5) carrying technical, financial and other aids to small men, as in agriculture, national extension and community projects and village and small industries;
- (6) organising efficient management for public enterprises, as in industrial undertakings, transport services and river valley schemes;
- (7) securing local community action and public participation so as to obtain the maximum results from public expenditure, as in agriculture and in social services; and
- (8) strengthening the co-operative sector of the economy through assistance in managerial and technical personnel and establishment of co-operative, financial, marketing and other institutions."

An Administrative Staff College for India

On the recommendation of the All India Council for Technical Education and on the initiative of the Central Government and with the support of prominent individuals drawn from public life, a Committee was appointed in 1953 under the chairmanship of Mr. T.T. Krishnamachari, Minister for Commerce & Industry to prepare the detailed plans and estimates for the establishment of an Administrative Staff College in India on the lines of the pioneer institution of the kind at Henley-on-Thames in the U.K. The Committee has

selected Hyderabad for the location of the College and through the courtesy of the State Government the "Greenlands" buildings with a fine setting have been secured and are being fitted up for the College.

The Administrative Staff College will offer a three-month course in the principles and techniques of organisation, administration and leadership in civil life. It will also provide opportunities to young administrators from all walks of national life—private and public enterprises, Government and local bodies—to meet and exchange ideas to their mutual advantage. Such association will be valuable not only for the 'cross-fertilisation' of ideas and techniques among them, but also as a means to promote better understanding among those in charge of administration in different spheres of national activity.

The first Court of Governors of the Administrative Staff College of India will consist of :

Dr. John Matthai (Chairman)
 Mr. S.B. Bapat
 Mr. G.D. Birla
 Mr. J.J. Ghandy
 Dr. J.C. Ghosh
 Mr. O.T. Jenkins
 Mr. K.C. Mahindra
 Mr. Ambalal Sarabhai
 Lala Shri Ram
 A nominee of the Government of India.

Acceptance of Employment in Firms Enjoying Government Patronage

The Government of India have issued orders that whenever the sons/daughters or dependents of Class I officers of the Government of India wish to accept employment with private firms with which the officers have official dealings, or with other important firms having official dealings with the Government of India, the fact should be reported to Government by the officers concerned and Government's permission should be obtained to such employment. Where, however, the acceptance of such employment could not await Government's prior permission or the matter is otherwise considered urgent, a report should be made to Government and the employment accepted provisionally subject to Government's permission.

Prof. D. G. Karve's Global Tour

Prof. D. G. Karve, who was one of the founder-organisers of the Indian Institute of Public Administration and its first Director, proceeded on a 3½ months' 'global' tour in the first week of March to study the recent developments in the field of Co-operation and Community Projects. The tour covers visits to Burma, Japan, U.S.A., Canada, U.K., Ireland, Denmark, Sweden, France, Switzerland, Italy and Greece. The Indian Institute of Public Administration has requested Prof. Karve to take advantage of his visit to establish contacts with sister institutions in these countries as the Institute's official representative.

Personnel Officers in Railways

In a directive issued to the various Railway Administrations, the Railway Board has suggested the allotment of a whole-time officer for personnel work in each Railway District, which is the smallest unit of Railway Administration. This officer will settle grievances on the spot, and look after other matters concerning the welfare of the staff. The Railway Board's directive is based on certain recommendations made by the Railway Corruption Enquiry Committee.

Recruitment to State Services by Competitive Tests

The Jammu and Kashmir Government have instructed the State Public Service Recruitment Board to hold competitive tests to ensure proper selection of candidates for the State services. The Board will shortly hold a competitive test for vacancies of gazetted posts in accounts and audit service and excise department.

The State Government have also set up a three-member Committee to suggest changes in the State's Service Regulations to bring them in line with those existing in other States.

Training School for Clerks and Accountants

In Travancore-Cochin, all new clerks recruited to the State service will have to undergo five months' training in a 'Training School for Clerks and Accountants'. The training will be divided into two parts : (i) 3 months' general instruction in the Constitution of India, legislative business, Government work and the audit code, and (ii) two months' practical training.

Improving Municipal Administration in West Bengal

By a recent amendment of the Bengal Municipal Act, 1932, the Government of West Bengal have assumed power to appoint duly qualified Executive Officers for Municipalities which, in their opinion, are not being managed properly. The Executive Officers, who may either be Government servants or outsiders will be given adequate powers to work somewhat independently of the influence of the Municipal Commissioners. The new measure is expected to bring about a much-needed improvement in the administration of Municipalities without taking the extreme step of supersession of the entire body of Municipal Commissioners and placing a Government Officer at the helm of municipal administration. Provision has also been made for stricter audit of the accounts of the Municipalities.

Reorganisation of District Administration

The Punjab Government have decided to convert all the 54 *tehsils* in the State into sub-divisions within the next two years. The creation of these new sub-divisions will considerably relieve the district heads from undue pressure of work and help in reorganising and decentralising the district administration.

Service Conditions of Local Body Employees

The PEPSU Government have appointed a three-member Commission to examine the service conditions of employees of local bodies and to make necessary recommendations to ensure their security of service. The Commission consist of the Under-Secretary of the Local Self-Government Department, Secretary to the Commissioner and Executive Officer of Patiala Municipality.

Advisory Committee on Rural Affairs

A 23-member advisory committee has been set up by the Chief Commissioner of Delhi under the chairmanship of the State Development Minister, to assist the Government and the State Development Advisory Board in rural problems. The Committee, known as the Development Projects and Local Works Committee, will also help the Board and the authorities in matters relating to development of Panchayats and consolidation of land holdings in the State.

Economy in Development Expenditure

Considering that the tempo of rising expenditure during the next five years would open up many possibilities of extravagance and waste, it is necessary to keep a close watch over such expenditure to ensure that the tax-payer gets the maximum benefit out of the planned outlay. The Government of India therefore propose to "set up a special high-powered committee of Ministers and the Deputy Chairman of the Planning Commission at the Centre to organize a thorough investigation, including inspection in the field, of the important projects in hand both at the Centre and in the States (with the approval of the National Development Council), through specially selected teams. These teams will be composed of officials as well as non-officials specially selected for each group of related investigations and may be assisted by outside experts. As the results of each investigation are received, the High-powered Committee at the Centre will examine them with a view to formulating proposals for effecting economy to be implemented by Central Ministries or in the States, as the case may be." "Such proposals may conceivably include the setting up of economy units for different categories of projects, preferably in the Planning Commission."

3. PAKISTAN**Railway Enquiry Committee**

A one-man Railway Enquiry Committee has been appointed to review the working of the North Western Railway (West Pakistan) and Eastern Bengal Railway (East Pakistan). The terms of reference of the Enquiry Committee are : "(i) To examine the pace at which the rehabilitation programme has to be progressed to ensure the necessary safety and efficiency of the Railways; (ii) to indicate the extent of development needed to bring the Railways in line with the economic progress of the country; (iii) to suggest alterations in the rates policies necessary to meet the changed conditions in the country; (iv) to suggest ways and means of improving the overall efficiency of working of the Railways."

4. UNITED KINGDOM

Employment of Retired Senior Government Servants in Industry

A scheme for utilizing the services of retired senior officers of the Armed Services and the former Colonial Service in industry has been evolved by the Federation of British Industries.

There is apparently no employment problem with retired technical officers, but only with those whose careers have been devoted to general administrative duties. The Federation therefore has set up an advisory council to exercise general oversight of all aspects of this scheme, and on it are represented the Officers' Association, the Colonial Office, the Polytechnic, the Administrative Staff College and the Ministry of Labour.

A series of five-week "industrial appreciation courses", the first of which is now in progress, has been arranged by the Polytechnic and retired officers of the rank of colonel or its equivalent, or higher, wishing to take the course may be interviewed by a selection panel set up by the Federation.

Royal Commission on Law Relating to Common Land

The British Government have appointed a Commission under the chairmanship of Sir Ivor Jennings, R.C., Master of Trinity Hall, Cambridge, to enquire into the law relating to common land in England and Wales. The Commission have been asked "to recommend what changes, if any, are desirable in the law relating to common land in order to promote the benefit of those holding manorial and common rights, the enjoyment of the public, or, where at present little or no use is made of such land, its use for other desirable purpose."

Conference on French Public Administration

With the help of the Ecole Nationale d'Administration, the Royal Institute of Public Administration, London, proposes to arrange for the benefit of its members a conference in Paris from September 12-19, 1956. The subjects for discussion will deal with some of the main aspects of French Public Administration, and visits will be arranged to places of administrative interest.

5. UNITED STATES

New Performance Rating System in U.S. Department of Army

The Department of Army will put into effect in May 1956 a new performance rating system which is reported to have met with strong approval from both employees and supervisors in field trials conducted during the past 8 months.

The new system will apply to *every civilian employee* regardless of rank, type of job or whether paid under a Wage Board scale or under the Classification Act.

Because the law requires that at least three "adjective" ratings be used to grade employees at least once a year, the Army will not discontinue the present *Satisfactory*, *Unsatisfactory* and *Outstanding* ratings.

The Army will, however, try to make the ratings more meaningful by supplementing them with a written evaluation by the supervisor of the work of each employee and of the employee's potential for advancement. This evaluation will be discussed in conference with the employee and will go into his personnel folder. The "adjective" rating may be appealed against, but not the written evaluation. However, the employee is given the opportunity of writing on the rating form any comment he wishes to make regarding the evaluation, including his disagreement with any part of it.

New Employee Rating System in Colorado

A new employee rating system has been instituted in Colorado. It has been developed by the Colorado Civil Service Commission with advice and assistance from departmental personnel officers and department heads. The new system which is called 'Performance Rating' rather than Merit Rating, employs descriptive adjectives in place of numbers. It asks departments to rate employees on nine factors—a rating on five of the nine factors is required and is optional on more than 5. The factors are : work habits, relationships with people, dependability, quality and quantity of work, willingness and interest, adaptability, job intelligence and administrative or supervisory ability (for supervisors only).

Study of Merit System by High School Students

The U.S. Civil Service Commission are planning to give the thousands of high school students expected to visit Washington this Spring an opportunity to learn, at firsthand, about the merit system in the Federal Government. The programme of visit and study will include a brief orientation course about the organisation of Government, the relationship of the Civil Service Commission to other Government agencies and career opportunities in the Federal Service. A kit of information materials on the Federal service will be furnished to the teacher-escort for use in the school library.

Appointment of a Board to Review U.S. Intelligence

In January 1956, President Eisenhower appointed a watchdog board of eight citizens to monitor the activities of the Central Intelligence Agency and other units gathering security information. The President has acted on a recommendation of the Commission on Organisation of the Executive Branch of the Government, headed by former President Herbert Hoover. The part-time board of eight consultants is, however, a compromise of proposals to maintain strict supervision through full-time committees. The board is to meet not less than once every six months for several days at a time. Dr. James R. Killian Jr., President of Massachusetts Institute of Technology, has been named chairman.

Citizens' Service Bureau, Pontiac

Pontiac, Michigan, has established a Citizens' Service Bureau to handle complaints and requests for information from the public. The Bureau is located centrally in the city hall, and a separate line from the city hall telephone switchboard has been reserved for calls involving complaints and requests for information. When a complaint is phoned in, a record is made by a clerk on forms listing the name and address of the caller, the date, and the nature of the complaint. A copy is routed to the department concerned, and a duplicate is kept in a 'tickler' file. After the department has disposed of the complaint, their copy is returned to the Service Bureau, where the clerk mails a double postcard to the citizen concerned. One half of this card contains a short letter from the city manager asking the citizen to check and return the attached card to indicate whether his complaint was handled satisfactorily, courteously, and promptly. The Bureau was established in August 1955 and complaints have averaged 30 to 40 a day.

Citizens Told Reason for Inconvenience

American cities are taking a lesson from the dental profession which knows that patients don't mind pain so much when they know (1) they are being hurt for good reason and (2) how long the pain will last.

According to the American Public Works Association, more and more cities are making an effort to tell their residents why they are being inconvenienced by any construction project and how long it will be before the project is finished.

In Cincinnati, O., for example, where a major thoroughfare was torn up along one side, forcing motorists to use a narrow lane, a sign informed them that the work was being done to give citizens a better water supply.

Winnetka, Ill., prepares mimeographed notices describing the work under way and distributes them by messenger to each family or business in the affected area.

Vancouver, B.C., sends two men to interview all businessmen along a street where work is planned. The interviewers try to find out how construction can be arranged to lessen the inconvenience to the merchants.

Burbank, Calif., puts an announcement in the envelope containing the water and electric bills. The announcement tells about projects planned for construction.

Study Material for Promotion Examinations

The city personnel department in Alhambra, California, has adopted a policy of helping city employees to prepare for promotional examinations by making reading lists available for study purposes. There is no guarantee that any test item will be based on any particular reading, but the publications help to prepare employees for the examinations by giving them back-

ground information and ideas. Firemen may secure a list of material on fire prevention, policemen a special list on police administration and science, and employees of all departments may use a list of 43 books on supervision, management, personnel and public relations.

Bureau of Government Research, University of Massachusetts

A Bureau of Government Research has been established at the University of Massachusetts to do research, issue publications, and co-operate on projects with local government officials. John Gillespie, formerly training officer, Institute of Public Affairs, University of Texas, has been appointed Director of the new Bureau. Other staff will include an assistant director, a statistician, and a secretary.

New Journal on the Science of Administration

The Graduate School of Public Administration, Cornell University, Ithaca, N.Y., propose to bring out a new journal : *Administrative Science Quarterly*. The first issue will appear in June 1956. The journal will be edited by Prof. James D. Thompson. The foreign subscription will be \$7.50, with a special student subscription of \$4.00. The quarterly will contain articles, book reviews and abstracts relating to administration as revealed in business, educational, governmental, hospital, military and similar organizations.

6. MISCELLANEOUS

I.I.A.S. Congress at Madrid, September 3-8, 1956

The 1956 Congress of the International Institute of Administrative Sciences will be held in Madrid during the first week of September. The main subjects for discussion will be :

- (1) Present tendencies in the post-entry training of higher-grade civil servants;
- (2) Procedures for preparing and carrying out administrative reforms; and
- (3) The contract procedures of public authorities for public works.

Economic Development Institute set up by the World Bank

With the financial assistance from the Rockefeller and Ford Foundations, the World Bank has established in Washington a new centre for study and training in economic development, which will be known as the Economic Development Institute. Its object is to meet the need of the less developed countries for a general improvement of economic management in Government by increasing the number of administrators skilled in dealing with problems of economic policy, planning and development. Fourteen senior officials from different countries including Belgium (African Territories), Ceylon, India, Pakistan, the Philippines and Thailand are participating in the first six months' course which started early this year.

Digest of Reports

PERSONNEL AND CIVIL SERVICE : A Report to the Congress : REPORT OF THE COMMISSION ON ORGANIZATION OF THE EXECUTIVE BRANCH OF THE GOVERNMENT (*Second Hoover Commission*). Washington, D.C., Superintendent of Documents, 1955. x, 101p.

The Report is divided into nine chapters. Chapter 1 describes briefly the Civil Service System as it stands today. The Federal Government as of June 30, 1954, employed 2,345,718 civilians in almost every conceivable type of occupation and its total annual payroll is approximately 9,000,000,000. The Civil Service System covers 1,991,216 Federal civilian personnel. The remaining positions are filled under other laws or are excepted from the statutory requirements. The Civil Service System when it was established covered only 13,900 positions or 10.5 per cent. of the positions in the Federal Service. Its growth to 84.9 per cent. of Federal civilian positions has not, however, been based upon rigid adherence to the merit system. This has resulted partially from political considerations and partially from the way and the conditions under which the system expanded.

The Commission as well as their Task Force point out that the Government's personnel on the whole is competent, faithful, and in numerous specialities, distinguished. The greatest weakness is in expert managerial direction. Management needs to be improved at all levels, from the non-career political appointees and the career administrators down to the first line supervisors.

The major recommendations of the Commission, contained in Chapters III to VIII, are as follows :

1. Career administrators should, as soon as possible, be relieved by non-career executives of responsibility for advocacy or defence of policies and programmes and should be kept out of direct participation in political controversies. In addition competent non-career executives should be worked into management organization at the departmental level to help carry the workload, assist the Secretaries and assistant secretaries in improving their control over and grasp of departmental business, and take over the political tasks formerly handled by many career administrators. Political appointees should not be placed in the line of command below career administrators. Obviously, such appointments undermine the line of command and make the position of career administrator untenable.

2. The President should designate the positions which should be in the non-career category and use the following criteria to determine these positions :

- (a) All positions filled by Presidential appointment, with or without confirmation by the Senate;
- (b) All positions having vested in them statutory authority or executive delegations of authority requiring the incumbent to make final decisions in the establishment of government

policies, programmes, objectives and in the enunciation of principles which will control the action of subordinates in the implementation of the foregoing;

- (c) All positions, the duties of which require the incumbents to act publicly in advocating new policies and in justifying or defending the governing policies or the basic principles or philosophy which controls their department or agency policies;
- (d) Most positions of a personal and confidential nature such as personal aides, confidential secretaries, and personal chauffeurs. Non-career executives may, of course, continue to employ career people in such positions.

3. The Congress should authorize salary increases for the Government's top managers, career and non-career, as a practical means of securing and holding competent men in public service.

4. While competent men may be willing for temporary periods to accept lower pay in public service, they are becoming increasingly reluctant to give up their lifetime accumulations of investments and pension and other rights of private industry and life. The President and the appropriate committees of Congress should review the conflict-of-interest laws to determine whether the intent of such laws can be better achieved by other and more positive means which would encourage rather than discourage entry of competent men into public life.

5. The Congress should authorize and the President establish a Senior Civil Service composed of highly qualified, politically neutral career administrators nominated by their employing agencies and appointed after a careful selection by a bipartisan Senior Civil Service Board.

6. Except for special skills, training should be systematically conducted by the agencies themselves and that training should count heavily as a factor in the promotion of employees.

7. (a) The grade structure under the Classification Act of 1949 as amended, be simplified. Grades GS 1-6 should be combined into three grades, and Grades GS 7-11 should be combined into three grades. Positions would then be allocated to six grades in this range rather than to eleven. Many employees in positions now classified at GS-15 and up should be absorbed into the senior Civil Service with its own pay schedules based on personal-rank status.
- (b) A genuine classification of postal employees should replace the misleading system in payment according to meaningless titles.
 - (c) To provide co-ordination among the multiplicity of wage board systems, a definite statutory basis for payment in accordance with prevailing labour-market rates should be established, and the Civil Service Commission should be authorized to study such pay systems and to establish general rules and regulations
 - (i) for classifying the positions to be paid at local rates, and
 - (ii) for determining local prevailing wages.

- (d) The Civil Service Commission and the appropriate committees of the Congress should review the positions covered by the Classification Act to determine whether additional positions might in the interest of economy and efficiency be paid under local wage board arrangements.
- 8. (a) An active and continuous recruiting programme should be established which should include :
 - (i) Continued efforts to improve the character and distribution of announcements;
 - (ii) Adequate public information programmes; and
 - (iii) Expansion of college recruiting, under Civil Service Commission leadership but with full agency participation.
- (b) The Civil Service Commission and the employing agencies should make vigorous and continued efforts to improve examinations.
- 9. (a) More use should be made of interviews, and interview techniques should be improved;
- (b) Junior professional examinations, especially Junior Management Assistant examinations should be improved;
- (c) The Civil Service Commission should be authorized by law to allow appointing officers greater leeway in selecting personnel by permitting them to make their selection from among five certified eligibles rather than three (the present rule) except in appointments to lower grade positions and the postal field services; and
- (d) The Commission should make full use of its authority to substitute 'category rating' for 'numerical rating' of the qualifications of applicants for certain higher scientific, technical and administrative positions.

10. The Performance Rating system, as it now operates, is a burdensome process of making largely perfunctory judgments. It falls far short of the objective of creating a friendly and helpful human relationship between supervisor and employee. If a Performance Rating system is to be useful, it must be an adjunct of good supervision and a means for improving the subordinate. It should not be an end in itself. The present Performance Rating system be abolished and a new system be established under which the supervisor reports at least once a year only on the following :

- (i) Employees with potential capacity for further development and responsibilities;
- (ii) Employees deserving meritorious awards;
- (iii) Employees misfit in their present assignments and who should be reassigned to other work and/or retrained for other work;
- (iv) Employees undeserving of periodic pay increases because of unsatisfactory service (employees not so designated would receive their increases in due course);
- (v) Employees requiring dismissal.

In each case the supervisor should submit in writing to his superiors the reasons for his judgment and specific suggestions as to action desired. The right to appeal against adverse decisions under the new system, should be limited to one appeal to higher authority in the agency.

11. (a) Each agency should train its supervisors to handle disciplinary problems properly, and delegate authority of removal to the lowest practical management level.
 - (b) The probationary period be used more systematically and vigorously to screen out inadequate employees.
 - (c) Supervisor's handling of dismissals and inadequate employees should be emphasized in evaluating supervisor's performance. Evidence of slackness or indecision should count heavily against the supervisor.
12. (a) Groups of positions which presently are excepted from the competitive civil service, such as positions overseas and in the territories, should to the extent possible either be brought within the competitive service and filled by open competition, or they should operate within special merit systems designed to meet the particular needs of these groups of positions.
 - (b) The Presidential adviser on personnel management should be empowered to examine the operations of all personnel systems outside the regular Civil Service.

13. The Civil Service Commission, in cooperation with the Bureau of the Budget, should undertake a codification of the laws and orders affecting Federal personnel management, and report to the Congress on changes in legislation which the codification indicates are necessary to clarify and simplify existing laws, eliminate duplication and clarify lines of authority. Congress should enact the necessary legislation, as indicated, to effectuate the codification.

14. The Civil Service Commission should expand its research activities as a basis for developing improved basic standards and 'guide lines' under which the commission delegates its authority to departments and agencies and provides assistance to them; continue to expand the delegation of operating functions (subject to its standards) to the departments and agencies; emphasize vigorous, realistic and reasonably frequent inspections in order to assure compliance with the principles of the Civil Service laws and regulations, and the standards established by the commission under which it makes delegations of authority to the departments and agencies.

15. Departments and agencies delegate as much authority (subject to suitable standards) for individual personnel actions as is possible to lower operating levels. Agency personnel offices should be free to concentrate on positive personnel management, research, training and executive development and manpower planning.

ESTIMATES COMMITTEE, 19th Report (Ministry of Railways-General Administration); 1955-56. New Delhi, Lok Sabha Secretariat. ii, 38p.

The report describes and examines existing set-up of the railway organisation at various levels. Part I includes a descriptive survey of (i) the organisation of Railway Board (secretariat, attached and subordinate offices), and (ii) the general pattern of organisation and functions of railway administration. Part II which is critical, deals with (i) the central controlling authority, (ii) the size of railway zones, (iii) the divisional, district and regional patterns of organisation, and (iv) the separation of the Ministries of Railways and Transport. The main recommendations of the Committee on these questions briefly are :—

1. The Zonal Consultative Committees as at present constituted are too unwieldy. A Council of not more than 5 Advisers should advise the General Manager on different aspects of railway administration. There should be similar advisory bodies at regional, divisional and district levels also.

2. The Railway Board should be strengthened by one additional Member to look after the Civil Engineering Department for which the Chairman, Railway Board, is at present incharge, who should also have the charge of the Planning Section and the Efficiency Bureau.

3. Work relating to day-to-day administration and co-ordination should be transferred to a new wing thus enabling the Members of the Railway Board to give more prompt attention to matters of policy. The status of the Directors should be equated with that of the General Manager so as to obviate frequent references to the Board.

4. The work-load on each Railway is more than the optimum work-load for the prevailing pattern of organisation and shows a marked tendency to increase. The high-power technical committee to be set up to study the problem of the reorganisation of Railway Zones should at least include one non-official member with considerable experience in business. The committee should, in making its recommendations bear in mind the following basic considerations :—

- “(i) No person should be called upon to carry a charge bigger than he can effectively control and administer;
- (ii) Contact between the Administrative Officer and the Executive and the staff under their command should be close and effective;
- (iii) More specially, Supervisory Officers should have time at their disposal for ‘thinking’;
- (iv) Decentralisation should be extended to the point where it is possible to achieve speedy decisions;
- (v) The man on the spot must be given sufficiently adequate powers to discharge the responsibilities placed upon him and the structure should be so designed as to permit him to grow in initiative;

- (vi) The General Manager and his Heads of Departments should visit the remotest part of their charge at least once a year and show themselves to their staff; and
- (vii) The size of the smallest executive unit must be such as will enable the executive officer to get to know his men, guide and supervise them and make himself one with his team."

5. The district pattern of organisation, where each principal officer in the district railway administration, is responsible to the chief officer of his particular function or department at the headquarters, is efficient only for smaller units, and is being rapidly outmoded by the progressive increase in work-loads. The divisional system of organisation, on the other hand, makes for better co-ordination and supervision on the spot and should be expeditiously introduced in all railway administrations; full care, however, being taken to ensure that the divisional unit chosen is not too big for efficient management by one Divisional Superintendent.

6. Periodical regular meetings of General Managers should be held for promoting better co-ordination.

7. The Transport Ministry should be separated from the Railway Ministry and placed under the charge of a separate Minister to afford relief to the Minister for Railways.

GOVERNMENT OF TRAVANCORE-COCHIN: REPORT OF THE PAY COMMISSION. *Trivandrum, Government Central Press, 1955, ii. 103p.*

The Commission—a non-official body—was set up in 1955 by the Government of Travancore-Cochin, under the chairmanship of Shri K.S. Govinda Pillai, Retired High Court Judge, Trivandrum, to review the scheme of pay revision already sanctioned, with a view to rectifying the anomalies and omissions, if any, and to suggest suitable alterations, wherever necessary within the financial resources of the State. The Commission find that consistent with the pay scales sanctioned for the higher classes of Officers, it would be reasonable to fix the minimum remuneration of the lowest class at Rs. 50 per mensem and to place this class in the scale of pay of Rs. 25-1-35. The Dearness Allowance might also be enhanced to Rs. 25/-. Working on this minimum, the Commission have recommended revised scales of pay both for gazetted and non-gazetted staff keeping in view the following basic considerations :—

- "1. Improvement of existing scales of pay by raising their maximum or creation of new scales where a particular category of officers deserves a higher scale.
- 2. Re-adjustment of service personnel in the sanctioned scales having regard to their educational qualifications, nature of work, etc.

3. Placing service personnel having the same functions and responsibilities in all Departments, on more or less similar scales of pay.

The Commission's recommendations involve substantial revision only in respect of officers in the lower scales of pay. The new rates will involve the State Government an additional average annual cost of Rs. 44.8 lakhs.

For ensuring an even flow of promotion from lower to the upper division for clerks, the Commission favour the existing fixed ratio of 1 : 4 laid down by Government in January 1955. The Commission have also taken note of the discontent prevailing among the senior officers of the State on account of the reservation of the senior posts—the plums of office in the administrative and executive service—for the I.A.S. cadre.



Book Reviews

THE POLITICAL PROCESS : Executive Bureau-Legislative Committee Relations; *J. LEIPER FREEMAN.* New York, Doubleday & Company Inc., 72, viii p. 95 c.

Decision-making is an important aspect of public administration. In a democratic organization of government decisions have to be made within a complicated framework of institutions and agencies endowed with power and limited by responsibility. While the constitution vests the final authority to make decisions on matters of policy in such bodies at the summit of the governmental pyramid as the Executive and the Legislature, a number of lesser organs operating at various levels below are sharing in the process more or less effectively. Often it is these lesser organs which are far more important in shaping policy than the more imposing constituents of the governmental structure.

A study of the decision-making process at levels lower than the summit is, for that reasons, likely to provide us with a better insight into the working of the governmental system than can be derived from a knowledge of constitutional theory or practice. A stimulating and fruitful attempt in that direction has been made by Professor Freeman in this small volume.

Below the level of the President and Congress—the highest executive and legislative organs under the American Constitution—decisions are largely influenced and promoted by the Executive Bureau and the Legislative Committee. The Bureau and the Committee of the Legislature dealing with a particular subject are always acting and interacting on one another in order to promote or oppose a particular decision. In this way, there is what Professor Freeman has called a “subsystem” at work under the overall system of Executive—Legislative relationship. Three elements are functioning in this subsystem : the bureaus, the committees and the interest groups affected specifically or generally by the decisions involved. While the Administration, the Congress and the Political Parties are not passive, and may become very active on issues which are not particularly specialised, there is far greater scope for the subsystem to be effective within its special field than is generally realised. Hence the importance of the study of the subsystem. Drawing on the experience of the working of the bureaus and committees over a fairly long period, Professor Freeman has given a lucid account of the various factors involved in their inter-relations. The behaviour of the leaders of the three elements is analysed with a view to finding out the sources of their effectiveness or failure in promoting decisions. The sentiments, seniority, interests and standing of the persons concerned are all factors to be reckoned with in determining their influence on their opposite numbers. The formal and informal ways of initiating and helping propaganda in favour of particular policies are discussed and their limitations brought out.

Altogether this little volume will be regarded as a very valuable addition to the growing literature on the "realistic" study of Government in the United States. Its value lies as much in what it contains as in the suggestive approach it provides to an essentially dynamic aspect of the study of modern government.

—S. V. Kogekar

THE STUDY OF COMPARATIVE GOVERNMENT; ROY C. MACRIDIS. *New York. Doubleday and Company, Inc., 1955, 77p. 95c.*

While the study of comparative government forms an essential part of any university syllabus in political science, there is a growing dissatisfaction in academic circles about the way it has been approached and taught since many years past. Generally the dissatisfaction arises because of the almost complete absence of any significant comparison between different political systems in the traditional approach to the subject. It arises partly also on account of the all too exclusive concern of the political scientist with the constitutional or anatomical aspect of the different systems studied. The enumeration of different features of a system followed by a like enumeration regarding other systems might at best give us a description of the systems in question. But no hypothesis, much less a theory, about the inter-relations within a system (not to speak of a causal relationship) can be built on such foundations. This causes the political scientist to pause and inquire if a more fruitful approach to the subject is not possible. Prof. Macridis has addressed himself to this vexed question and has indicated the lines on which a reorientation could be thought of. Apart from making a plea to give up the narrowly circumscribed study of "governments" in favour of a study of "politics", he suggests a scheme of conceptualisation which would make comparisons possible and purposeful. The four basic concepts on which he would like to see a new study of "comparative politics" built up are : Decision-making, Power, Ideology and Political Institutions. They should serve as a convenient and relevant basis for selection of facts as also for their comparison and evaluation in different political systems. Each of these concepts could be further analysed into its components and comparisons could be instituted within a static as well as a dynamic framework. The scheme suggested by the Professor is only illustrative and even there he is not unaware of the difficulties in the way. But a beginning has to be made somewhere. Further refinements may follow in the wake of actual effort.

There is no doubt that Prof. Macridis has argued his case in an impressive way without being in the least dogmatic about his particular scheme of reorientation. For that reason his survey and suggestions have become too important to be easily brushed aside. The sceptic can, of course, challenge the basic postulate that comparisons can so easily become meaningful on the adoption of the kind of conceptual framework which Prof. Macridis has in mind or that the multiplicity of variables in any actual situation can be brought within the scope of such a conceptual framework. If general conclusions are formulated on the basis of the comparisons, their validity might again be limited to the conditions initially assumed and may have little of the practical value which Prof. Macridis seeks to achieve.

Finally there is the larger though hackneyed question of the possibility of building up a theory of political behaviour, on the analysis of political phenomena alone. But with all these methodological questions starting in one's face, there is still no reason to belittle the pioneering and obviously refreshing effort of Prof. Macridis as embodied in this little volume. Political Scientists will do well to peruse and ponder over his thesis. One may also express the hope that Prof. Macridis will follow up this methodological work by another to demonstrate the application of the method.

—S. V. Kogekar

FRENCH ADMINISTRATIVE LAW AND THE COMMON-LAW WORLD; BERNARD SCHWARTZ. *New York, New York University Press, 1954. xxii, 367p. \$7.50.*

Here is a book by an accredited scholar of international eminence which removes an age-old misconception that the system of French administrative law—*droit administratif*—is inconsistent with the constitutional principle of the rule of law. It was seventy years ago that Dicey denounced *droit administratif* as 'despotic' on the ground that it countenanced freedom of administrative action from all judicial control. This criticism has persisted ever since and even Dr. Schwartz, the present author, repeated it only a few years ago. But that was before he made an 'on the spot' study of the French administrative law. After spending fifteen months in France in observing *droit administratif* in action, he has now revised his views and has in this masterly treatise, analysed the different facets of the *droit administratif* and shown that the French system also is governed by the rule of law as much as the Anglo-American systems. After tracing the historical development of the *droit administratif*, he has convincingly pointed out that Dicey's description of it is out-of-date and no longer accurate.

The book is of absorbing interest to the laymen and the lawyer alike. With the expanding governmental activities and growing complexities in administrative functions, the points of impact between the common man and the executive are far too numerous. And in these days of democracy there arise numerous perplexing problems of balancing administrative justice with administrative expediency. The vigil of the courts of law over executive action as envisaged by Dicey's rule of law is indeed the traditional way of safeguarding the rights and privileges of the citizen. But Dr. Schwartz has now revealed that the working of the two-court system in the *droit administratif* is as satisfactory as the unitary Anglo-American system. The administrative courts in France dealing with administrative-law cases, are also as independent of the active administration as the ordinary law courts and are, the author emphasises, "infused with the inculcated traditions and techniques that are an indispensable part of any judicial tribunal". He observes that the '*Conseil d'Etat*', the highest administrative tribunal in France, is "as much a true court as the Court of Cassation", the supreme law court in the French system. This poses a question: should there be a dichotomisation of remedial justice? Should there be two parallel systems to deliver justice—one as between two ordinary citizens and the other as between the administration and the citizen? The author

has answered it in the negative after drawing attention to the 'jurisdictional difficulties' and has advocated judicial review of administrative action by ordinary law courts, discarding the argument that 'administrative courts' specialised in administrative-law cases would tamper legal justice with administrative as well as social justice.

The credit for the book must also go to the New York University Institute of Comparative Law under whose auspices the study has been prepared. The Institute has an ambitious programme of comparative study and research in foreign laws and legal systems and this work is the first of the series which promises to be of immense interest to the legal world. Quite naturally, the present author has adopted the comparative method in expounding the principles of the *droit administratif* and has wound up with a summary of those aspects of the French system that appear to be in advance of the Anglo-American system and also with suggestions for certain changes in the systems which provide food for thought to every student of law.

—B. N. Lokur

KURUKSHETRA : A Symposium on Community Development in India (1952-55) ; THE COMMUNITY PROJECT ADMINISTRATION. Delhi, Publications Division, 1955. viii, 525p. Rs. 7-8.

The book contains 109 articles which are almost all reprints from the monthly journal *Kurukshetra* which came into existence in 1952 when the Community Development Programme was launched in this country. In the symposium the articles have been rearranged in nine distinctive groups. The first group of articles under the heading *Gram Kalyan* is mainly inspirational in character. The opening article entitled *The Yajna* is from the pen of the President of India. While fully recognising the importance of the aid and the role of Government activities in promoting 'integrated' welfare, he emphasises that the result cannot be satisfactory unless the people take up the work as their own and put their heart into it. "Mahatma Gandhi used to look upon all work for the common benefit as *Yajna* and it is in this spirit of *Yajna* that the work has to be undertaken and accomplished."

The next article is a contribution from the Prime Minister. It calls upon every Indian citizen to join in the war against poverty and ignorance. "People talk of money and money is, no doubt, useful but it is the human being that counts in the end. If we train and prepare the right type of human beings in India, then the rest is easy. All over India we have centres of human activity which are like lamps spreading their light more and more in the surrounding darkness. This light has to grow till it covers the land."

Shri C. Rajagopalachari's article *Gram Kalyan* which follows that of the Prime Minister, asks workers everywhere to find joy in working together for the good of all. In the first section, as in some of the other parts, there is an article "From a Farmer's Sen". It emphasises the importance of manual work. "Whether we travel South or North, West or East, monuments of time some intact, some in debris, tell us of ages bygone. The

temples and works of art, the roads and dams bear ample testimony that muscles did do it once. They tell us "Muscles can do it" again. They tell further that "Muscles can be trained to do it", that "Conditions can be created to do it afresh".

Several other contributors in the first section including Mr. Clifford H. Willson emphasise the basic principles underlying the Community Development Programme.

The remaining eight sections contain articles dealing with the progress of the work and with the problems which have arisen and still continue to arise. In Part II a signal contribution has been made by Shri V.T. Krishnamachari, Deputy Chairman of the Planning Commission in his article on "The National Extension Movement". Shri Krishnamachari explains in detail the objects of the movement and the relationship between the Community Development programme and the National Extension Service. In "New Wine in Old Bottles", Messrs. Douglas Ensminger and Carl C. Taylor stress the important part played by the movement in recreating a 'significant' village culture.

The importance of approach and methods is brought out in the succeeding parts. The basic idea is being crystalised that the movement is essentially the people's movement and the initiative for both planning and execution should, therefore, rest with the people. This is the theme of Shri Tarlok Singh's article "Planning at the Village Level".

As the programme gains in strength and volume the question of the combination of regulatory and developmental functions assumes greater importance. The aim of the Community Projects Administration has been to transform what might be called Administrative Services into Welfare Services and this principle has almost universal acceptance. Officers from the Development Commissioner to the level of the Sub-Divisional Officer have been squarely charged with the responsibility of development work. Below Sub-Divisional level, however, the principle of integration has yet a long way to go except in Bombay. The problem is examined in articles like "The Programme at the Cross Roads" by "Satyakam".

Part VI is perhaps in a sense the most important of all. It deals with people's institutions. Though the programme was started with almost one hundred per cent. government initiative, the emphasis has now shifted to the organisation of elected panchayats in the period of the Second Plan and the question of making the movement in reality a people's movement, therefore, becomes very important.

A national movement which has already covered one-fourth of the country and which will cover the rest by 1961 requires personnel of various categories to discharge the many functions to be performed in carrying out the multipurpose programme. This aspect is dealt with in Part VII. A striking achievement has been the training of about 40,000 workers of all categories since the programme was inaugurated. A heavy task will be involved during the Second Plan. New training centres will have to be opened and the Community Projects Administration also intends to keep

workers abreast of the latest trends in the movement by giving refresher courses and arranging for seminars and study tours.

Part VIII deals mainly with education, health and welfare work among women and children and Part IX is entitled "Assessment". For evaluating the progress achieved in the implementation of the programme with particular reference to methods and techniques used, an independent and self-contained unit—the Programme Evaluation Organization—was set up in April 1953. Prof. D.G. Karve who was its Director till the middle of 1955 has written an interesting article on the objectives of the Evaluation Organization and the way in which it has functioned. An objective assessment of the impact of the programme on the life of the village community is most valuable to enable the administration to detect, in time, any methods or programmes which are undesirable in their working or their results.

The symposium, on the whole, contains a fund of information and ideas which will be of great value to all who take part in what the Prime Minister has described as "this tremendous adventure of building up new India".

—B. R. Tandan

ADMINISTERING COMMUNITY EDUCATION ; ERNEST O. MELBY. *Englewood Cliffs, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1955. xvii, 325p. \$6.*

American education is facing a crisis. There is a serious and mounting shortage of teachers and class rooms. The teacher shortage is expected to reach the half million mark by 1965. Qualitatively, there is a feeling among educational experts that the educational system is not adapting itself to the needs of a more complex community which is conscious of its role in the changed world situation of today. The progressive separation which is taking place in the larger cities between the dormitory areas and the business and working centres is loosening the community ties, and the communication that once existed between the school administrator, the teaching faculty and the parents is breaking down. Among other things, this is leading to destructive public criticism of the school system and a growing disinclination or inability on the part of the local community to mobilise its resources for the development of education.

As an answer to this problem, the author, who is the Dean of the School of Education, New York University, suggests a new concept of administration in Education to replace the present outmoded concept drawn from industry. Under the present system the overall administering authority is vested in a Board of Education which is analogous to the board of directors of a corporation. Though both are essentially elected bodies the "electorate" has very little direct interest and voice in determining the nature and standards of the service rendered. The Superintendent of Schools is the opposite number for the managing director of the corporation. The Board of Education, like the board of directors of a corporation, determines policy and the execution is entrusted to the Superintendent as the chief executive officer. The teachers under this system are analogous to the 'workers' in industry and the supervisors and principals are somewhat like the factory 'managers'.

and 'foremen'. It can be readily seen that under a system, such as this, of authoritarian management the school tends to be without any organic relationship with the community it caters for, and, within the school system all sorts of stresses and strains are generated as a result of planning and performance being put into watertight compartments.

The new concept advocated is dynamic and community-centred. The Superintendent, in the new concept, would try to develop the educational programme with the active participation of the layman of the community as well as the school faculty. The process is an education in itself for all the participants, and the programme that emerges has behind it the backing of the community as well as the teaching faculty.

The administrative principles recommended for adoption by the Superintendent of Education, under this new concept of educational administration, have a much wider application in present-day conditions in America as well as in this country. The concept of the Administrator functioning as a social engineer, or a catalytic agent, or an individual exercising creative leadership, more eager to listen than to speak and lay down the law, and encouraging the mere "beneficiaries" of the educational system to become active "participants" in it, has a familiar ring in this country in the new context of a nationwide community development programme. The same thing could be said about the author's advice: "There are some things which Administrators must forego, if they expect to be effective: one is the luxury of losing one's temper." The old authoritarian administration is today out-of-date; the new administration should increasingly concern itself with the far more difficult task of providing creative leadership to the community. The book is a valuable contribution towards the development of this new democratic and dynamic concept of administration which should have an appeal much wider than the field merely of educational administration.

—U. L. Goswami

ORGANIZATION AND MANAGEMENT: THEORY AND PRACTICE; CATHERYN SECKLER-HUDSON. *Washington, The American University Press, 1955. viii, 324p. \$5.*

Mrs. Seckler-Hudson is the Chairman of the Department of Government and Public Administration at the American University, Washington, D.C., and is the author of about a score of books. In the twenties her attention was focussed round the current problems of American social life; in the thirties, she drifted to the study of constitution—her book: "Government by the People", has been translated into 26 languages; since the forties she has taken Public Administration as the subject of her special interest and investigation.

Without attempting to tax the reader with a heavy load of descriptive details Mrs. Seckler-Hudson has in the *first part* of the book, described in a short compass the modern concept of Public Administration and Principles of Organisation and Management. Her approach is dynamic. If the

organisation is to be effective it must keep pace with the changing social situation. She emphasises that the making of policy and its execution are distinct, though related elements which may require different treatment in different contexts. Totalitarian governments march towards administrative ends without outside interference or delay. Their policy is clearcut and execution straightforward. In democracy, on the other hand, as the author observes, "Policies are arrived at, then, in all sorts of ways conditioned by all sorts of matters. They are difficult to define precisely because they are everchanging as one influence after another conditions them to become something slightly or substantially different from what they were yesterday" (p. 71).

'Unity of Command' is the first principle of any administration, democratic or authoritarian. But this well-known principle, more often than not, as the author observes, "dies before it is born" (p. 24). The prevailing practice in the democratic structure engenders confusion of authority and diffusion of responsibility. This can, however, be overcome by improving the administrative machinery, gearing it properly to the needs of the country, and giving it a certain amount of autonomy. The 'multiple bosses' in democracy must cultivate the virtue of restraining themselves to the reasonable limit of putting pressure and making exaggerated and undue criticism.

Mrs. Seckler-Hudson lays down 12 principles or guides of Organisation and Management. The author is pragmatic enough to allow flexibility of these principles. She quotes Lyndall Urwick in these words, "The principles, however, convenient as a shorthand method of thinking, are only guides in action. If they become rules—rigid—they lose their utility. There must be continuous machinery for working out new principles and applying existing principles to cases". This sort of dynamic approach permeates throughout the "book" (p. 43).

In *part two*, the author deals with the process of organisation and management. In seven chapters out of nine she has explained in detail, in the light of her own experience, the famous coining of Luther Gulick's 'POSDCORB', made up of initials of Planning, Organisation, Staffing, Directing, Co-ordinating, Reporting and Budgeting.

Without making any outstanding or original contribution, "Organisation and Management" makes a lucid and effective presentation of the subject-matter. At the beginning of every Chapter the author puts a set of leading questions which puts the reader in a challenging position to try and compare his own solutions of the questions with those of the author and in most cases he will find himself in agreement with the author's solutions.

Notwithstanding the American background the author has the breadth of mind to lay down General Principles which apply to all countries having a democratic set-up, as the basic problems are more or less similar. Without being 'rules' they are safe 'guides-in-action'. A bibliography of worthy books, journals and government publications given at the end is an added attraction.

The author is realistic in approach and constructive in making suggestions. The book is recommended to all 'practitioners, scholar-practitioners and theorists'. All modern executives, whether in public establishments or in private concerns, will be better equipped in their field by a study of the book.

—Ajit Banerjee

NOTICES

MANAGEMENT TOPICS; ed. P.S. CHOHAN. Bombay, *Management Publications*, Vol. I, No. 1, January, 1956, 28p.; No. 2, 30p. As. 8. Annual Rs. 6/-.

A new, interesting but rather slim periodical; the plan evidently seems to be to collect together for the benefit of business executives in India, important information and writings on ways and methods of improving management practices. The second issue includes an original contribution by Col. L. Urwick : "Gobbledygook about Management."

THE CO-OPERATIVE WAY : A Handbook; SUNIL GUHA. New Delhi, *Indian National Congress*, 1956. 193, xiii p. Rs. 2-8.

A handbook primarily meant to help the ordinary reader and the social workers to understand the basic principles and the background of the Co-operative Movement in India. Mentions important developments in foreign countries. The slow progress of co-operative movement in India has been attributed to the lack of trained personnel. The U.K. system of training personnel in accountancy, shop-keeping, business management, etc., has been strongly recommended.